

# PROCEEDINGS OF THE COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

(Proceedings of a Colloquium held on January 24-25, 1994)

## APPENDIX TO FINAL REPORT

(California Air Resources Board Contract No. 92-341)

Submitted by

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Air Pollution Health Effects Laboratory  
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# PROCEEDINGS OF THE COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

(Appendix to California Air Resources Board Contract No. 92-341 Final Report)

Prepared and Edited by: Robert F. Phalen, Richard C. Mannix, Michael T. Kleinman and Marie C. Tonini.

The material in this document was originally prepared for the Colloquium on Particulate Air Pollution and Human Mortality and Morbidity held on January 24-25, 1994, at the Arnold and Mabel Beckman Center of the National Academies of Sciences and Engineering in Irvine, California. The meeting was sponsored by the California Air Resources Board, with co-sponsorship by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the American Association for Aerosol Research, the Centers for Occupational and Environmental Health at the University of California Irvine and Los Angeles, and the Department of Community and Environmental Medicine, University of California-Irvine.

The included material covers platform and poster papers presented at the Colloquium, as well as session summaries and unsolicited commentaries. However, some of the papers were prepared after the 2-day meeting, and others were revised substantially. Most of the papers and abstracts can be found in two special editions, 7(1) and 7(5) of the peer-reviewed journal Inhalation Toxicology. The material in this document does not contain the revisions that followed peer-review. Therefore, Inhalation Toxicology 7(1) and 7(5), 1995 should be consulted prior to quoting any information herein. This proceedings contains some manuscripts as they were submitted for review. Some must be considered as drafts. Quotation from this document is therefore, discouraged. Copies of this Appendix are available at the cost of printing, handling and mailing. For information, please contact:

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"The statements and conclusions in this report are those of the individual authors and not necessarily those of the California Air Resources Board. The mention of commercial products, their source or their use in

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# **Organizing Committee and Editorial Board Members for Special Issues of Inhalation Toxicology**

## **Colloquium on Particulate Air Pollution and Human Mortality and Morbidity**

- Dr. David V. Bates, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
- \* Dr. Deepak K. Bhalla, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. Glen R. Cass, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA
- \* Dr. Steven D. Colome, Integrated Environmental Services, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. Timothy R. Gerrity, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA
- \* Dr. Michael T. Kleinman, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. Michael D. Lebowitz, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, USA
- Dr. Morton Lippmann, New York University, New York, New York, USA
- Dr. William J. Mautz, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. Roger O. McClellan, Chemical Industry Institute of Toxicology, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA
- \* Dr. Michael S. Perkins, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- \* Dr. Robert F. Phalen, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. C. Arden Pope III, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah, USA
- \* Dr. Shankar B. Prasad, South Coast Air Quality Management District, Diamond Bar, California, USA
- Dr. Carl M. Shy, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA
- Dr. Mark J. Utell, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York, USA
- \* Mr. Dane Westerdahl, California Air Resources Board, Sacramento, California, USA
- \* Dr. James L. Whittenberger, University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- Dr. William E. Wilson, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

- \* Organizing Committee Members

# **COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY**

## **PROGRAM**

**January 24-25, 1994  
Irvine, California**

<b>Session S1:</b>	<b>Human Mortality and Morbidity Study Results</b>
<b>Session S2:</b>	<b>Methodology and Reanalysis of Previous Studies</b>
<b>Session S3:</b>	<b>Mechanisms of Particulate Toxicity</b>
<b>Session S4:</b>	<b>Sources, Levels and Characterization of PM10</b>
<b>Poster Session P1:</b>	<b>Human Mortality and Morbidity</b>
<b>Poster Session P2:</b>	<b>Mechanisms of Injury</b>
<b>Poster Session P3:</b>	<b>Air Pollutant Characteristics</b>

Hosted by: The Air Pollution Health Effects Laboratory, Department of Community and Environmental Medicine, UCI, The UC Irvine Center for Occupational and Environmental Health.

## **COLLOQUIUM PROGRAM**

**Monday, January 24, 1994**

### **7:00-7:55      BREAKFAST**

- 8:00    Introduction to the Colloquium: Dr. Robert F. Phalen (Colloquium director)  
8:05    Description of Evening Sessions: F. Dane Westerdahl (Cal ARB)  
8:10    Research Needs Orientation: Dr. Roger O. McClellan (President: CIIT)

### **Session 1:      Human Mortality and Morbidity Study Results (Papers S1.1 to S1.6)**

**Co-Chairs: Dr. Morton Lippmann, Dr. C. Arden Pope III; Monitor: Dr. Michael S. Perkins**

- 8:15    "Review of epidemiological evidence of acute mortality effects of particulate air pollution." Joel Schwartz, Harvard School of Public Health, MA.  
"Review of epidemiologic evidence of acute morbidity effects of particulate air pollution." Douglas W. Dockery, Harvard School of Public Health, MA.  
"Review of epidemiologic evidence of chronic health effects of particulate air pollution." C. Arden Pope, III, Brigham Young University, UT.  
"Long-term exposure to ambient concentrations of particulates and development of chronic disease in a cohort of non-smoking California residents." David E. Abbey, Loma Linda University, CA.  
"Associations of ambient PM10 pollution with respiratory symptoms and pulmonary function of children in the Netherlands." Gerard Hoek, Brunekreef, B. and Roemer, W. University of Wageningen, The Netherlands.  
"Air pollution and pediatric asthma in Los Angeles." Bart Ostro, Lipsett, M., Mann, J. and Braxton-Owens, H. CAL EPA.

### **10:45    BREAK**

### **Session 2:      Methodology and Reanalysis of Previous Studies (Papers S2.1 to S2.6)**

**Co-Chairs: Dr. Morton Lippmann, Dr. C. Arden Pope III; Monitor: Dr. Michael S. Perkins**

- 11:00    "Daily mortality and exposure to PM10 air pollution, Utah Co., Utah 1985-1992." Joseph L. Lyon and Mori, M. University of Utah Medical Center, UT.  
"Particulate air pollution, sulfur and daily mortality: A reanalysis of the Steubenville data." Suresh H. Moolgavkar, Luebeck, E.G., Hall, T.A. and Anderson, E.L. Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, WA.  
"Daily mortality analysis by using different regression models in Philadelphia Co." Li, Yuanzhang and Roth, D. Roth Associates, MD.

### **12:00    LUNCH**

- 1:00    "Los Angeles daily mortality and particulate matter: New results and sensitivity analysis." Patrick L. Kinney, Ito, K. and Thurston, G.D. New York Medical Center, NY.  
"Uncertainties in identifying responsible pollutants in observational epidemiology studies." Frederick W. Lipfert. Environmental Consultant, NY.  
"Air pollution epidemiology: is the model the message?" George D. Thurston and Kinney, P.L. New York University Medical Center, NY.

### **2:00    Discussion**

### **3:00    BREAK**

### **Session 3:      Mechanisms of Particulate Toxicity (Papers S3.1 to S3.6)**

**Co Chairs: Dr. Mark J. Utell, Dr. Timothy R. Gerrity; Monitor: Dr. Deepak K. Bhalla**

- 3:15    "The clinical perspective." Mark J. Utell. University of Rochester Medical Center, NY.  
"Toxicologic evidence for health effects from inhaled particulate pollution." Richard B. Schlesinger, New York University Medical Center, NY.  
"Cellular and immunologic injury with PM10 inhalation." Michael T. Kleinman and Bhalla, D.K. University of California, Irvine, CA.  
"Surface complexed iron, lung inflammation and hyperreactivity." Daniel L. Costa, Tepper, J.S., Lehmann, J.R., Winsett, D.W. and Ghio, A.J. Duke University, NC.  
"Dosimetric issues relating to particulate toxicity." Frederick J. Miller and Gerrity, T.R. Duke University, NC.

"Association of particulate air pollution and acute mortality: Involvement of ultrafine particles?" G. Oberdorster, R. Gelein, N. Corson and P. Mercer, University of Rochester, NY.

**5:15 Discussion**

**6:00 DINNER** (Hosted at the Academy)

**6:45 POSTERS**

**7:30 Evening ARB Arranged Session: (Epidemiological and Biomedical Interpretations of PM10 Results: Issues and Controversies) Coordinators: Dr. James L. Whittenberger, Dr. Michael D. Lebowitz and F. Dane Westerdahl.**

**9:30 ADJOURN FOR DAY 1**

**Tuesday, January 25, 1994**

**7:00-7:55 BREAKFAST**

**Session 4: Sources, Levels and Characterization of PM10 (Papers S4.1 to S4.9)**

**Co-Chairs: Dr. Glen R. Cass; Dr. William E. Wilson; Monitor: Dr. Michael T. Kleinman**

**8:00 "Variabilities in PM10 concentrations within metropolitan areas and their implications to health effects analyses." Kazuhiko Ito, and Thurston, G.D. New York Medical Center, NY.**

"Spatial and temporal variability in the size distribution and acidity of ambient PM10." John D. Spengler, Ozkaynak, H. and Thurston, G.D. New York Medical Center, NY.

"What we know human exposures to acidic sulfate particles." Jed M. Waldman, Koutrakis, P., Allen, G.A., Thurston, G.D., Burton, R.M. and Wilson, W.E. Environ. & Occup. Health Sciences Inst., NJ.

"Labile species in particle-bound water." Wilson, W.E. U.S. EPA, NC.

"Sources and factors influencing personal and indoor exposures to particles and PAHs." John D. Spengler, Harvard School of Public Health, MA.

"Quantifying the contribution of sources of organic aerosols in atmospheric samples." Wolfgang F. Rogge, Hildemann, L.M., Mazurek, M.A., Cass, G.R. and Simoneit, B.R.T. Florida International University, FL.

"Loadings, size distributions and sources of organic compound classes in Los Angeles aerosol." David T. Allen, University of California Los Angeles, CA.

**10:20 BREAK**

**10:40 "Determination of the size distribution and chemical composition of fine particulate semi-volatile organic material in urban environments using diffusion denuder technology." Delbert J. Eatough, Cui, W. and Machir, J. Brigham Young University, UT.**

"The effect of variable ambient particle size distributions on the cut point between fine and coarse mass fractions." Dale A. Lundgren, Burton, R.M. and Wilson, W.E. University of Florida, FL.

**11:20 Discussion**

**12:00 LUNCH**

**SESSION 5: Gaps in Knowledge and Research Needs: Short-term and Long-term.**

**Session Chair: Dr. Roger O. McClellan. Panel Presentations: Dr. Morton Lippmann, Dr. C. Arden Pope III, Dr. Mark J. Utell, Dr. Timmothy R. Gerrity, Dr. William E. Wilson, Dr. Michael D. Lebowitz, Dr. Glen R. Cass.**

**1:00 Discussion**

**2:30 BREAK**

**2:45 Discussion**

**4:45 Closing Comments: Dr. Robert F. Phalen (Colloquium director) and Dr. John R. Holmes (Chief: Cal ARB Research Division).**

**5:00 MEETING ADJOURNS**



#### POSTER SESSION: HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

- P1.1 Brunekreef, B., Hoek, G., Roemer, W., van der Zee, S. "A collaborative European study of acute effects of airborne particulate matter."
- P1.2 Cook, K., Lyon, J.L., Mori, M., Hegmann, K.T., Hegmann, C., Doxey, T., Higham-Gren, L., Gao, R. "Hospitalization rates for respiratory disease and exposure to PM10 air pollution."
- P1.3 Delfino, R.J., Becklake, M.R. and Hanley, J.A. "The relationship of urgent hospital admissions for respiratory illnesses to air pollution levels in Montreal."
- P1.4 Ginevan, M.E. "Suspended particulates and daily mortality in Santa Clara County: An exploratory approach."
- P1.5 Horstman, D., Kotesovec, F., Vitnerova, N. "Respiratory health status of elementary school children residing in Teplice Czech Republic."
- P1.6 Kaczmarek A., Lyon, J.L., Caravati, M., Ferguson, D., Stoddard, G., Higham-Gren, L. "A potential confounder of air pollution studies: The periodicity in admission rates for respiratory disease in children age <1."
- P1.7 Koenig, J.Q., Larson, T.V., Schwartz, J. and Hefflin, B. "A comparison of PM10 from combustion or natural sources."
- P1.8 Linn, W.S., Gong, H. Jr., Avol, E.L., Anderson, K.R., Shamoo, D.A. and Hackney, J.D. "Short-term air pollution exposures and lung function changes in school children from three Southern California communities of contrasting air quality."
- P1.9 Lippmann, M. and Ito, K. "Separating the effects of temperature and season on daily mortality from those of air pollution in London: 1965-1972."
- P1.10 Lipsett, M., Ostro, B and Mann, J. "Effects of ambient and indoor air pollution on peak flow in a panel of adult asthmatics."
- P1.11 Mori, M., Lyon, J. "Statistical methods for assessing association between daily mortality and particulate air pollution."
- P1.12 Neas, L.M., Schwartz, J., Samet, J., Dockery, D.W. "Reanalysis of the relationship between air pollution and emergency department visits in Steubenville, Ohio."
- P1.13 Ozkaynak, H., Xue, J, Severance, P., Burnett, R., Raizenne, M. "Associations between daily mortality, ozone and particulate air pollution in Toronto, Canada."
- P1.14 Ricci, P.F., and Catalano, J. "Time series of mortality and ambient air pollution in California: An assessment of results, 1965-1991."
- P1.15 Haring, J. E. "Human mortality, air pollution, and unemployment in Southern California."

#### POSTER SESSION: MECHANISMS OF INJURY

- P2.1 Bennett, W.D., Zeman, K.L. and Kim, C. "Variability of particle deposition with age in adults with normal lung function."
- P2.2 Chen, L.C., Wu, C.Y., Qu, Q.S. and Schlesinger, R.B. "Number concentration and mass concentration as determinants of biological response to inhaled irritant particles."
- P2.3 Devlin, R.B., Joyce, M., Madden, M., Becker, S. and Koren, H.S. "Inflammatory mediators released by human alveolar macrophages after exposure to silica and titanium dioxide."
- P2.4 Frampton, M.W., Morrow, P.E., Utell, M.J. "Acidic aerosols: Effects on alveolar macrophage function and ozone responsiveness in humans."
- P2.5 Goldsmith, D.F. "Comparing human and animal extrapolations for cancer potency of airborne crystalline silica: Implications for PM10 risk determinations."
- P2.6 Kim, C.S., Hu, S.C., Dewitt, P. and Gerrity T. "Assessment of local deposition of inhaled particles in human lungs."
- P2.7 Koutrakis, P., Sioutas, C., Skornik, W.A. and Brain, J.D. "The development of an ambient particle concentrator for human and animal inhalation exposure studies."
- P2.8 J.C. Lay, W.D. Bennett, P.A. Bromberg, R. Devlin, T.R. Gerrity and H. Koren. "Particle instillation in human lungs: A method for measuring lung response to inert particles."
- P2.9 Menache, M.G., Miller, F.J., and Jarabeck, A.M. and Raabe, O.G. "Inhalability curves for humans and for small laboratory animals."

- P2.10 Rahman, Q., Norwood, J., Oberdorster, G. and Hatch, G. "Rat-human differences in macrophage oxidant production by pollutant particles."
- P2.11 Schum, G.M., Phalen, R.F. and Oldham, M.J. "Risk assessment of inhaled particles: Integrating time-activity patterns with respiratory tract particle deposition models."
- P2.12 Swift, D.L. "The oronasal airways: The definer and ignored respiratory zone or the PM10 regulatory convention."
- P2.13 Chapman, R.S. and Wilson, W.E. "Particulate air pollution associations with and mechanisms for human mortality and morbidity."
- P2.14 Lewtas, J. "Particulate organic matter (POM): Is it the causative agent for human morbidity and mortality associated with particulate air pollution?"

#### **POSTER SESSION: AIR POLLUTANT CHARACTERISTICS AND RELATED ISSUES**

- P3.1 Allen, G., Koutrakis, P., Wilson, W.E., Burton, R.M. "Temporal variation in components of particle mass in Philadelphia."
- P3.2 Burton, R.M., Wilson, W.E., Suh, H.H., Allen, G., Koutrakis, P. and Waldman, J. "Spatial variation in fine and coarse particle mass within metropolitan Philadelphia."
- P3.3 Chow, J.C., Watson, J.G., Lu, Z., Lowenthal, D.H., Solomon, P.A. and Magliano, K. "Diurnal variations of regional PM10, nitric acid, nitrogen oxides, peroxyacetyl nitrate, and ozone during SJVAQS/AUSPEX ozone episodes."
- P3.4 Fennelly, K.P., Bucher, B.L., Ackerson, L.M., Jones, R.J. and Kreiss, K. "Exposure assessment in epidemiological studies of the health effects of particulate air pollution: A comparison of data obtained by the hourly beta gauge technique and the daily reference method for PM10."
- P3.5 Kao, A.S. and Friedlander, S.K. "Temporal and spatial variations of sources of PM10 in the South Coast Air Basin."
- P3.6 Leaderer, B.P., Stowe, M., Li, R., Sullivan, J., Koutrakis, P., Wolfson, J.M. and Wilson, W. "Particle and vapor phase acid concentrations in residences associated with combustion sources."
- P3.7 Lillquist, D.R. "Why correct PM10 measurements for pressure and temperature."
- P3.8 Lipsett, M., Ostro, B. "Episode criteria for PM10: Is it time to revise?"
- P3.9 Rozenburg, M.J. "Real time monitoring of airborne particulates."
- P3.10 Stevens, R.K., Pinto, J.P., Willis, R.D., Mamane, Y., Novak, J., Santroch, J., Benes, I., Lenicek, J., Subert, P. and Bures, V. "Human exposure to air pollution in the Czech Republic."
- P3.11 Watson, J.G., Chow, J.C., Frazier, C.A., Bowen, J.L., Lowenthal, D.H. and Lu, Z. "PM10 fine particle, and nitric acid concentrations in California during 1988-89."

a:agenda

## S1.1 - S1.3

### REVIEW OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL EVIDENCE OF HEALTH EFFECTS OF PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION

C. Arden Pope, III<sup>1</sup>  
Douglas W. Dockery<sup>2,3</sup>  
Joel Schwartz<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Economics, Brigham Young University, 142 FOB, Provo, UT 84602.

<sup>2</sup>Environmental Epidemiology Program, Department of Environmental Health, Harvard School of Public Health, 665 Huntington Ave., Boston, MA 02115.

<sup>3</sup> The Channing Laboratory, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, 180 Longwood Ave., Boston, MA 02115.

This paper summarizes epidemiological evidence of health effects of particulate air pollution. Acute exposure to elevated levels of particulate air pollution has been associated with increased cardio-pulmonary mortality, increased hospitalization for respiratory disease, exacerbation of asthma, increased incidence and duration of respiratory symptoms, declines in lung function, and restricted activity. Small deficits in lung function, higher risk of chronic respiratory disease and symptoms, and increased mortality have also been associated with chronic exposure to respirable particulate air pollution. Health effects have been observed at levels common to many U.S. cities and at levels below current U.S. National Ambient Air Quality Standards. Although the biological mechanisms involved are poorly understood, recent epidemiological evidence supports the hypothesis that respirable particulate air pollution is an important risk factor for respiratory disease and cardio-pulmonary mortality.



# LONG-TERM AMBIENT CONCENTRATIONS OF PARTICULATES AND DEVELOPMENT OF CHRONIC DISEASE IN A COHORT OF NON-SMOKING CALIFORNIA RESIDENTS

David E. Abbey, Paul K. Mills\*, Floyd F. Petersen, W. Lawrence Beeson, Raoul J. Burchette, School of Public Health, Loma Linda University; \*CDC/NIOSH, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Funded by California Air Resources Board, grant # A933-160

A cohort of 6340 non-smoking California Seventh-day Adventists (SDAs) who had resided within 5 miles of their present residence for the past 10 years have been followed since 1977 for: incidence of cancer and myocardial infarction (M.I.) through 1982, development of definite symptoms of, and increasing severity of, airway obstructive disease (AOD), chronic bronchitis, and asthma through 1987, and all natural cause mortality through 1987. Cumulative ambient concentrations of specific pollutants have been estimated for study participants from 1967 to 1987 by interpolating monthly statistics from statewide air monitoring stations to zip codes of residence and work location. Statistics include excess concentrations and exceedance frequencies above a number of cutoffs as well as mean ambient concentration and mean ambient concentration adjusted for time spent indoors. Indoor sources of nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_2$ ), and of particulate pollution such as environmental tobacco smoke, both at home and at work, as well as occupational dusts and fumes, have been adjusted for in multivariate statistical models. Particulates included total suspended particulates (TSP), monitored from 1973-1987; inhalable particulates less than 10 microns in diameter ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ), estimated from site/seasonal specific regressions on TSP for 1973-1987; fine particulates less than 2.5 microns in diameter estimated from airport visibility data for 1967-1987; and suspended sulfates ( $\text{SO}_4$ ), monitored from 1977-1987. A direct measure of visibility, and gaseous pollutants—ozone, sulfur dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ), and ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) monitored from 1973-1987 were also included in analyses.

No statistically significant associations between any of the disease outcomes studied and  $\text{NO}_2$  or  $\text{SO}_2$  were found in this cohort. None of the pollutants studied showed statistically



significant associations with all natural cause mortality or incidence of all malignant neoplasms in males. Statistically significant associations were observed between elevated ambient concentrations of one or more particulate pollutants and each of the other disease outcomes. In addition, ozone was significantly associated with increasing severity of asthma, and with the development of asthma in males. Multipollutant analyses indicated that none of the associations between particulate pollutants and disease outcomes were due to correlations with gaseous pollutants studied except possibly for PM<sub>2.5</sub> and increasing severity of asthma, which could be due to a correlation with ozone. Observed associations between disease outcomes and PM<sub>2.5</sub> or PM<sub>10</sub> could be biased towards the null because of increased measurement error due to their indirect methods of estimation.





## S1.5

### **ASSOCIATIONS OF AMBIENT PM<sub>10</sub> POLLUTION WITH RESPIRATORY SYMPTOMS AND PULMONARY FUNCTION OF CHILDREN IN THE NETHERLANDS.**

Gerard Hoek, Bert Brunekreef and Willem Roemer. Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University of Wageningen, P.O. Box 238, 6700 AE Wageningen, the Netherlands.

Between 1987 and 1991 a series of epidemiological studies has been conducted into the acute effects of ambient air pollution on respiratory health of children. In three consecutive winters more than 1000 children (7-11 yrs) living in non-urban communities were studied. General population samples of children were studied with serial pulmonary function measurements (6-10 measurements per child) and an acute respiratory symptoms diary. A panel of children with chronic respiratory symptoms was studied with daily peak flow measurements and an acute respiratory symptoms diary (including medication use). The main exposure variables were the ambient concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and acid aerosol. Concentrations of acid aerosol were very low, 24-hour average PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations up to 174  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  have been measured. Higher PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations were associated with lower pulmonary function both in the general population samples and the panel population. The associations with PM<sub>10</sub> were detected in all three winter periods, whereas associations with SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> were found in one winter only, suggesting that particulate matter was the important factor. Only in the panel population a positive association with prevalence of acute respiratory symptoms and medication use was found. Small systematic differences in response between individual children were found.



## S1.6

### Air Pollution and Pediatric Asthma in Los Angeles

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California Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Environmental Health  
Hazard Assessment, 2151 Berkeley Way, Berkeley, CA 94704, (510) 540-2932

Clinical and epidemiologic evidence suggests that particulate matter and ozone are associated with exacerbations of asthma. African-American children, who have experienced a marked increase in asthma morbidity and mortality during the 1980s, may represent a particularly sensitive subgroup. In order to examine potential effects of air pollution on exacerbations of asthma, a panel of 83 African-American children, aged 7 to 12, were recruited from four allergy and pediatrics clinics in central Los Angeles and two asthma camps in the summer of 1992. Their socioeconomic status varied greatly. Daily data on asthma symptoms, medication use, and peak flows were recorded for three months and examined in conjunction with data on PM10, ozone, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, pollens, molds, and meteorologic factors. Using multiple logistic regression analysis corrected for autocorrelation, the daily probability of shortness of breath was shown to be associated with both ozone and PM10 concentrations. The effect of particles on shortness of breath was greater among children with moderate or severe asthma. These findings were confirmed by an individual-level analysis that took full advantage of the panel study design.



## S2.1

### Daily Mortality and Exposure to PM<sub>10</sub> Air Pollution, Utah County, Utah 1985-1992

Lyon, Joseph Lynn, Mori, Mori, Gao, Renlu  
 Department of Family and Preventive Medicine  
 University of Utah Medical Center, 1C26 SOM  
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Previous studies in Utah County have reported an association between exposure to a five day moving average of PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution and daily mortality from all causes (excluding accidents). We examined this relationship for 1985-1991, using a Poisson regression model to calculate rate ratios (RRs) for place and age at death by exposure to PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution of 75+ mgm/m<sup>3</sup>. The RRs are as follows:

<u>AGE</u>	<u>Location</u>						<u>TOTAL</u>
	<u>Hospital</u>		<u>Nursing Home</u>		<u>Home+ Other</u>		
	<u>RR</u>	<u>n=</u>	<u>RR</u>	<u>n=</u>	<u>RR</u>	<u>n=</u>	
<1	1.15	142	-	1	-	33	1.43
1-59	0.76	284	-	189	1.82	184	1.08
60-74	0.91	734	0.95	161	1.08	324	0.96
75+	1.19	932	1.15	745	0.94	654	1.10
Total	1.03	2092	1.10	936	1.14	1195	1.08

Data on the length of stay for hospitalized patients suggests that about half of those age 65+ who die in a hospital are there longer than five days. Mortality pattern suggests excesses due to PM<sub>10</sub> exposure may be occurring in hospitalized patients age <1, and those age 75+, in those age 75+ dying in nursing homes, and among those age 1-59 who die at home.



## S2.2

### PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION, SULFUR DIOXIDE AND DAILY MORTALITY: A REANALYSIS OF THE STEUBENVILLE DATA

by

Suresh H. Moolgavkar, M.D., Ph.D.,<sup>1</sup> E. Georg Luebeck, Ph.D.,<sup>1</sup>  
Thomas A. Hall, Ph.D., CIH,<sup>2</sup> and Elizabeth L. Anderson, Ph.D.<sup>2,\*</sup>

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\*Corresponding Author

A recent analysis (Schwartz and Dockery, 1992a) reported that particulate air pollution was significantly associated with daily mortality in the Steubenville SMSA, even after adjustment for the effects of weather. This statistically significant association was reported to persist, with no attenuation of the magnitude of the effect, when sulfur dioxide was simultaneously considered in the analysis. We undertook a reanalysis of the Steubenville data. Our main goals were 1) to investigate the robustness of the results obtained from regression analysis of the mortality data, and 2) to examine the effect of specific seasons on the relationship between particulate air pollution and daily mortality.

When full year mortality was analyzed, the effect of particulates was substantially attenuated when sulfur dioxide was simultaneously included in the regression, and was no longer statistically significant. When mortality data were analyzed by season, similar results were obtained. In addition, there appeared to be seasonal effects in the association of particulates and sulfur dioxide with daily mortality. The results of the analysis were not robust to small perturbations in the data. In view of these findings, it is premature to draw any conclusions about the relationship between individual components of air pollution and daily mortality.

Finally, some methodologic issues in the analysis of serial mortality data are discussed.





**DAILY MORTALITY ANALYSIS BY USING DIFFERENT REGRESSION MODELS IN  
PHILADELPHIA COUNTY, 1973-1990**

Yuanzhang Li, senior statistician, Roth Associates, Inc.; and H. Daniel Roth, president, Roth Associates, Inc.

Earlier investigators have found that in the city of Philadelphia there exists an association between daily levels of particulate matter and mortality among individuals age 65 and over (Schwartz et al., 1991). To more fully explore these results, we have analyzed the daily mortality using a host of independent variables including air quality indicators such as TSP, SO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>, and weather factors such as temperature, humidity, barometric pressure, and precipitation in Philadelphia County for the years 1973-1990. A wide variety of appropriate regression models were applied to the data. Our major findings on the association between mortality and daily pollution levels are that: (1) the estimation of this association is related to the selection of the statistical model; (2) this relationship is highly dependent on the season of the year and results are sensitive to the method of seasonal adjustment; (3) the relationships differ by age group (i.e. over 65 and under 65); and (4) it is difficult to distinguish the effect of one pollutant from another. Including more than one pollutant in the analysis changes the effect of each pollutant. In addition, this association also differs by cause of death. Hence, it is questionable whether TSP itself is a positive predictor of daily mortality, and there certainly does not exist one simple equation that relates the impact of increases of given pollutants on mortality.



## LOS ANGELES DAILY MORTALITY AND PARTICULATE MATTER: NEW RESULTS AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Patrick L. Kinney, Sc.D., Kazuhiko Ito, Ph.D. and George D. Thurston, Sc.D.

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We previously reported associations between daily mortality and particulate matter (KM), ozone, and temperature in Los Angeles County during the period 1970-1979. Several other recent studies have reported associations between daily mortality and levels of particulate matter and other pollutants measured over time in cities. In arriving at the reported results, these studies have used a variety of complex statistical methods designed to address the time-series character of the data. Because many of the statistical methods employed are relatively new and/or specialized, they are understood by few analysts and even fewer users of such results. In addition, there is currently no consensus about which approaches, among the several different ones that have been reported, are most valid for the analysis of the effects of environmental factors on daily mortality. This paper will report results of a new analysis of Los Angeles mortality/air pollution associations using data from 1985 to 1990, the period when routinely collected PM10 data first become available. We also will evaluate the sensitivity of these results to a range of statistical modeling approaches. The data consist of daily counts of total and cause-specific deaths, daily levels of ozone, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and meteorological variables, and every sixth day PM10. Methodological factors that will be tested include methods of controlling for seasonality (e.g., pre-filtering, seasonal covariates, sinusoidal covariates), assumptions regarding the distributional form of the errors (e.g., normal vs. poisson) and their correlation structure, linear vs. multiplicative models, and the specification of weather covariates. These results will evaluate the relative roles of PM10 and ozone as predictors of daily mortality in Los Angeles. In addition, we will demonstrate the degree of impact that a range of representative modeling approaches utilized in recent studies has on mortality/air pollution results in Los Angeles. Supported by NIEHS Grant # ES05711.

# **UNCERTAINTIES IN IDENTIFYING "RESPONSIBLE" POLLUTANTS IN OBSERVATIONAL EPIDEMIOLOGY STUDIES**

Frederick W. Lipfert<sup>1</sup> and Ronald E. Wyzga<sup>2</sup>

1. Environmental Consultant, Northport, NY

2. Electric Power Research Institute, Palo Alto, CA

Studies of community air pollution must deal with a complex mixture of substances, for which the available data on concentrations and their distributions vary greatly in completeness and accuracy. The monitoring database available for some pollutants (such as gravimetric particulate measures) far exceeds that available for others (such as carbon monoxide) in terms of spatial and temporal coverage. Little or no reliable routine monitoring data are available on aeroallergens or on particles classified by size and chemistry, for example. In addition, the relationships between outdoor air measurements and personal exposure vary substantially among pollutant species. This paper addresses the concern that the availability and quality of observed data may have limited the validity of the conclusions that can be derived from retrospective studies.

The statistical tool most commonly used to study relationships between air quality and health is multiple regression analysis, for which the validity of conclusions requires conformance with several basic assumptions. The published literature varies in the degree to which this conformance has been observed. We show by data simulation, and by numerical experiments with mortality and air quality data from Philadelphia, that differences in the reliability of exposure estimates among correlated variables can be critical in the selection of the "significant" variables in multiple (joint) regressions. Finally, we consider how nonlinear transformations can affect judgments about the relative importance of the variables considered. While models based on linear pollution relationships may be facile and may be convenient in characterizing effects, we have no assurance that they are in fact correct. Resolution of these issues will require better population-based air quality monitoring data, as well as laboratory studies appropriate to characterizing the nature of the implied biological responses to the mixtures and concentrations that currently comprise community air quality.

This research was supported by the Electric Power Research Institute under RP 3253.

**AIR POLLUTION EPIDEMIOLOGY: IS THE MODEL THE MESSAGE?**

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Recent epidemiological studies have indicated that ambient air pollution, including PM<sub>10</sub>, is associated with excess mortality and morbidity. These studies have included both cross-sectional comparisons across communities and time-series analyses over time in single communities. Cross-sectional studies have the complication that differences in population characteristics between communities must be carefully accounted for before ascribing health differences to air pollution. Time-series analysis offers certain advantages, primarily in that the study population is the same over time, so that it acts as its own "control". However, modeling such data is complicated by the fact that other environmental factors and other causes of illness usually confound the results unless they are adequately addressed. For example, asthma hospital admissions often exhibit broad spring peaks during the pollen season, and wintertime influenza epidemics cause long-wave peaks in respiratory mortality. Similarly, variations in emissions, dispersion, and atmospheric chemistry cause seasonal cycles in pollution. Such superimposed long-wave variations in both health outcomes and pollutant concentrations can undermine the statistical validity of time-series models by inducing autocorrelation, and can create long-wave "noise" which can overwhelm short-term "signals" of interest. This problem can be addressed by various statistical techniques, each with advantages and disadvantages. Also, analyses have sometimes focused on only one or two pollution metrics (e.g. PM<sub>10</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>), to the exclusion of other influential pollutants (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup>), which can cause the effects of the overlooked pollutant to be incorrectly ascribed to the studied pollutant. In this presentation, the influences of various time series modeling approaches and model specifications on results will be critically discussed, in order to provide insights useful in the evaluation of recent epidemiological evidence regarding PM<sub>10</sub>. This research was supported by NIEHS Grant # RO1-ES05711.

### **CLINICAL PERSPECTIVE ON RESPIRATORY DISEASE AND THE ROLE OF AIRBORNE PARTICLES.**

Mark J. Utell. University of Rochester School of Medicine, Rochester, NY 14642

Particulate matter in the air has been associated with increased respiratory morbidity and mortality. The recent mortality findings are remarkable for the demonstration of an apparent adverse effect of particles in concentration ranges under the present National Ambient Air Quality Standard. This finding warrants consideration in the context of both our understanding of clinical disease and relevant data from toxicologic studies. The elderly and persons with severe chronic lung disease (COPD) would be expected to be particularly at risk; causes of acute cardiopulmonary death might be attributed to pulmonary edema, acute respiratory infection, exacerbation of COPD or perhaps arrhythmias. Yet available toxicologic studies provide few clues in explaining acute mortality at low particle concentrations. Indeed controlled clinical studies with acidic particles at concentrations greater than twenty times ambient fail to produce a pulmonary inflammatory response in healthy individuals; and subjects with COPD, the group at presumably highest risk from the epidemiologic data, show no reduction of lung function with similar acute exposures. Perhaps our understanding of the toxicity of urban particles could be increased by investigations directed at the combined effect of metal ions plus particles, or particles plus oxidants, or even inert particles. The ultrafine fraction is an interesting but untested candidate given the increased toxicity of particles in the nanometer compared to micron size ranges. Thus, despite the epidemiologic observations, from a clinical perspective the pathophysiologic basis for the excess cardiopulmonary deaths remains problematic; until the findings of new toxicologic studies become available, the framework for interpreting the epidemiologic findings will be inadequate.

## S3.2

### TOXICOLOGIC EVIDENCE FOR HEALTH EFFECTS FROM INHALED PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION

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The fine size mode of ambient particulates, designated as PM<sub>10</sub>, is a heterogeneous mixture that can vary in particle size and chemical composition, depending upon geographical location, meteorology, and source emissions. While epidemiological studies indicate an association between ambient particulate air pollution exposure and increased human mortality and morbidity, the question remains as to biological plausibility. Individual components of PM<sub>10</sub> have been shown, in experimental studies, to produce what may be considered to be adverse health effects similar to those observed in humans. For example, diesel exhaust particles are associated with lung tumors, and acid sulfates are associated with airway hyperresponsiveness and alterations in mucociliary clearance. However, in most cases, exposure levels are well above those found in ambient air, and the relationship between results of toxicological assessments and human exposure scenarios is not always clear. Furthermore, in some cases, the chemical species resulting in adverse responses in toxicological studies are not always the same as those associated with effects in human population studies. Thus, while toxicological evidence clearly indicates the ability of certain ambient particles to induce increased morbidity in laboratory studies, the responsible chemical species have not been definitively delineated.

## CELLULAR AND IMMUNOLOGIC INJURY WITH PM10 INHALATION.

M.T. Kleinman, D.K. Bhalla, W.J. Mautz and R.F. Phalen. Department of Community and Environmental Medicine, University of California, Irvine, Irvine, CA 92717-1825.

PM10, or airborne particles less than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in mass median aerodynamic diameter (MMAD), are associated with adverse effects on human health including chronic lung diseases and mortality, but the mechanisms by which these particles cause or aggravate diseases are not specifically known. PM10 represents a complex mixture, both in terms of size and chemical composition, of aqueous-media soluble and insoluble particles. Furthermore, the ambient aerosol composition varies markedly in different locations and at different times in the same location. To test the effects of PM10 on pulmonary defenses in relation to specific cell targets, barrier-reared Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed to purified air (control), to two important constituents of the fine particle ( $< 1 \mu\text{m}$  MMAD) fraction of PM10 - ammonium sulfate [ $\text{SO}_4^{-2}$ ] ( $70 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  MMAD) and ammonium nitrate [ $\text{NO}_3^{-1}$ ] ( $350 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $0.6 \mu\text{m}$  MMAD). Rats were also exposed to an important contributor to the coarse ( $> 2.5 \mu\text{m}$  MMAD) mode of PM10 - resuspended road dust ( $300$  and  $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $4.0 \mu\text{m}$  MMAD). Exposures were 4 hr per day, 4 days per week for 8 weeks. Macrophage-dependent lung defense functions (phagocytosis and respiratory burst activity) were significantly depressed by  $\text{NO}_3^{-1}$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{-2}$  and the  $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  road dust exposures, compared to purified air controls. Lung permeability, as determined from measurements of total protein and albumin concentrations in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, was significantly greater in rats exposed to  $\text{SO}_4^{-2}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^{-1}$ , but not to road dust, when compared to air-exposed controls. Quantitative histopathologic analyses included measurement of alveolar nuclear density, alveolar chord length, alveolar septal thickness and alveolar surface area. These measures showed moderate to substantial changes and, in general, the severity of the responses was in the order of  $\text{NO}_3^{-1} > \text{SO}_4^{-2} > \text{road dust}$ , for the concentrations used in these exposures. A count of neutrophils and macrophages in the lung sections did not reveal significant inflammatory activity following the exposures. In summary, this study demonstrated the capability of soluble and insoluble PM10 components to produce pulmonary effects following repeated exposures. Submicron PM10 components changed morphometric characteristics of the lung, depressed macrophage functions related to defenses against respiratory infections, and increased lung permeability, which could exacerbate asthma in sensitive individuals. These findings are therefore consistent with those of epidemiological studies. The study also supports the hypothesis that the fine fraction of PM10 is more toxic than the coarse fraction. (Supported by California ARB Contract No. A933-158).



**SURFACE COMPLEXED IRON ( $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ) ON PARTICLES: ITS ROLE IN THE INDUCTION OF LUNG INFLAMMATION AND HYPERREACTIVITY.**

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Recent epidemiological studies report a significant relationship between exposure to ambient particles and morbidity, including the exacerbation of asthma. This association exists at particle concentrations not previously thought to pose a health risk, and, to date, has not been linked to specific physicochemical attributes of the particles. We have found that the concentration of surface complexed  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  of a variety of environmental particles is associated with the magnitude of particle-induced pulmonary inflammation (cells and injury markers) and the generation of reactive oxygen species *in vitro*. Three particles (Mt. St. Helens dust, ambient particles of Dusseldorf, Ger, and residual oil fly ash), which represented a range of inflammatory potential, were intratracheally instilled (2.5 mg in saline) into 60d old Sprague-Dawley rats. At 96 h post exposure, bronchoconstriction to IV acetylcholine and bronchoalveolar lavage were assessed in anesthetized rats. Both the degree of acute inflammation (PMNs, EOS, LDH, and protein) and bronchoreactivity correlated with the  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  loading of the particles as did the generation of TBA reactive products. Interestingly, the residual oil fly ash which had the greatest effect in the animals also recruited significant numbers of eosinophils into the lung. Since the surface  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  was paralleled by the degree of acidity of the particle in instillate suspension form, instillations with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  of comparable Ph were assessed using BAL parameters. These were substantially less following acid instillation as compared to the high surface  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  particles. Neutralization of the residual oil fly ash instillate enhanced toxicity and resulted in the precipitation of additional particulate material, probably metal oxides and hydrides. It appears that these particles if formed within the lung by *in vivo* neutralization could contribute to the overall toxicity via other mechanisms associated with direct cytotoxicity. The results to date suggest that surface coordinated  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  on particles have a significant role in the generation of oxidants and the elicitation of lung toxicity, although other factors may contribute to the response via independent or associated mechanisms. Studies to determine the nature of the oxidant pathways are currently under study. (This abstract does not reflect EPA policy.)

# **DOSIMETRIC ISSUES RELATING TO PARTICULATE TOXICITY**

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Recent epidemiology studies have demonstrated increases in acute mortality, as well as some evidence of increased morbidity, ascribed to particulate matter air pollution. Interestingly, for the levels of particulate pollution associated with the epidemiologic studies, there appears to be a discrepancy with results available from a large number of animal toxicology studies using many of the various compounds captured in the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's PM 10 standard. This apparent lack of consistency between the laboratory animal and human data has been the subject of much debate about the appropriateness of the animal models and endpoints studied. Such discussion implies that issues of species sensitivity are at the base of the differences between animals and humans. However, issues relating to dosimetry are equally plausible or likely to be contributing to the differences in effects seen. Some of these dosimetry issues relating to particulate toxicity will be discussed, with data both pro and con being presented. Among these dosimetry issues are the following:

- What are the major differences between common laboratory animals and humans with respect to the deposition and clearance of particles?
- Is there a sub-range of particle size within PM 10 that is likely to be responsible for the effects seen in the epidemiology studies?
- What about inhalability differences between animals and humans?
- Can the effects in people be attributed to a specific sub-population, such as those with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease or asthma?
- How much might activity level be contributing to the effective dose being received by those persons responsible for the mortality and morbidity effects being observed?
- Is there any evidence that "localized overload" of particulate clearance mechanisms may be occurring, and what are the potential species differences in this phenomenon?

Discussion of the above questions should provide attendees with a background of information pertinent to the objectives of the colloquium.

Disclaimer: This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy.

**ASSOCIATION OF PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION  
AND ACUTE MORTALITY:  
INVOLVEMENT OF ULTRAFINE PARTICLES?**

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Recent epidemiological studies show an association between particulate air pollution and acute mortality and morbidity down to ambient particle concentrations below  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . Whether this association also implies a causality between acute health effects and particle exposure at these low levels is unclear at this time; no mechanism is known which would explain such dramatic effects of low ambient particle concentrations. Based on results of our past and most recent inhalation studies with ultrafine particles in rats, we propose that such particles, *i.e.*, particles below  $\sim 50$  nm in diameter, may contribute to the observed increased mortality and morbidity. In the past we have demonstrated that inhalation of highly insoluble particles of low intrinsic toxicity, such as  $\text{TiO}_2$ , results in significantly increased pulmonary inflammatory responses when their size is in the ultrafine particle range, *i.e.*,  $\sim 20$  nm in diameter. However, these effects were not of an acute nature and occurred only after prolonged inhalation exposure of the aggregated ultrafine particles at concentrations in the  $\text{mg}/\text{m}^3$  range. In contrast, in the course of our most recent studies with thermodegradation products of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) we found that freshly generated PTFE fumes containing singlet ultrafine particles (median diameter 26 nm) were highly toxic to rats at inhaled concentrations of  $0.7 - 1.0 \times 10^6$  particles per  $\text{cm}^3$ , resulting in acute hemorrhagic pulmonary inflammation and death after 10-30 minutes of exposure. We also found that work performance of the rats in a running wheel was severely affected by PTFE fume exposure. These results confirm reports from other laboratories of the highly toxic nature of PTFE fumes which cannot be attributed to gas phase components of these fumes such as HF, carbonylfluoride, or perfluoroisobutylene, or to reactive radicals. The calculated mass concentration of the inhaled ultrafine PTFE particles in our studies was about  $64 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , a very low value to cause mortality. Aging of the fumes with concomitant aggregation of the ultrafine particles significantly decreases their toxicity. Since ultrafine particles are always present in the urban atmosphere, we suggest that they play a role in causing acute lung injury in sensitive parts of the population.

### **VARIABILITIES IN PM10 CONCENTRATIONS WITHIN METROPOLITAN AREAS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS TO HEALTH EFFECTS ANALYSES**

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Recent epidemiological studies have indicated associations between PM10 and mortality/morbidity in various regions in the U.S. However, aside from its possible variability in chemical composition from one region to another, PM10's temporal fluctuations can also vary dramatically from site to site within a metropolitan area. For example, PM10 has been collected at multiple sites in Los Angeles County, CA since 1985. These data show not only site to site differences in the PM10 levels, but also exhibit differences in their baseline PM10 seasonal cycles. This is in contrast to more spatially homogeneous pollutants such as ozone, and therefore presents a special challenge to PM10 exposure assessment for health effects analysis. In this study, all PM10 data from LA and Chicago metropolitan areas during 1985-1990, which have been obtained as part of an ongoing health effects study, are analyzed for their within-city spatial and temporal differences. The sensitivity of various "representative" population exposure estimates (e.g. central site vs. multi-site averages) to these various sites' individual variabilities is discussed. Conclusions are drawn as to the implications of these sensitivity analyses to PM10 health effects model estimates. This research was supported by NIEHS Grant # RO1-ES05711.

**SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL VARIABILITY IN THE SIZE DISTRIBUTION AND ACIDITY OF AMBIENT PM<sub>10</sub>**

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While some recent epidemiological studies of particulate matter less than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (PM<sub>10</sub>) suggest an association with mortality and morbidity, it is not yet clear what portion or characteristic of PM<sub>10</sub> is responsible. Some of the more toxic elements (e.g. Pb and As) and aerosol strong acidity ( $\text{H}^+$ ) tend to be concentrated in the submicrometer fraction. Thus, if the size and compositional characteristics of aerosols vary spatially and over time, then the present PM<sub>10</sub> NAAQS permits varying levels of public health protection at different times and at different locales, even if the PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations are the same. Moreover, efforts to assess the health effects of PM<sub>10</sub> via epidemiology can be confounded if the character of PM<sub>10</sub> varies substantially within and between study communities. In this presentation, the 24 Cities ambient aerosol dataset recently assembled by Harvard University is employed to see if the fine particle (FP) ( $d_a < 2.1 \mu\text{m}$ ) to PM<sub>10</sub> ratio (FP/PM<sub>10</sub>), the FP:PM<sub>10</sub> correlation over time, the  $\text{H}^+$ /PM<sub>10</sub> ratio, or the  $\text{H}^+$ :PM<sub>10</sub> correlation over time vary spatially among these sites located throughout North America. These results will then be used to evaluate the comparability of PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations measured over time and across localities, and conclusions will be drawn as to these results' implications to particulate matter standard setting and health effects assessment.

## S4.3

### WHAT WE CURRENTLY KNOW ABOUT HUMAN EXPOSURES TO STRONG ACID PARTICLES

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This paper reviews the findings of recent research programs and attempts to present an update of our current understanding about human exposures to strong acid particles. This review includes some of the key steps in our recent progress, such as aerosol chemistry and physics, improvements in samplers and measurement techniques, increases in databases, and exposure assessments. To augment an earlier paucity of data for aerosol acidity, there has been a great increase in the database of direct measurements from several recent field studies. These studies have shown that virtually all exposures occur in the warmer months, and the highest acid aerosol levels are specifically associated with summertime, regional stagnation periods. Frequently, acid aerosol episodes are coincident with photochemical smog and high ozone levels, although the reverse is not always the case. A number of new studies have shown that the effect of the indoors on human exposures to strong acid particles is entirely protective. That is, there are rarely important sources indoors, and most factors affecting the indoor air quality lead to attenuation of the acid particle levels. While sulfate aerosol effectively infiltrates from outdoors, the strong acid portion is largely neutralized by ammonia present indoors. Personal (i.e., breathing zone) exposures are found to fall between measured outdoor and indoor values. Notwithstanding the uncertainties, time spent outdoors will be the chief determinant of personal dose, accounting to upward of 90%, even for relatively minor proportions of outdoor activities. Time/activity-weighted models of indoor and outdoor concentrations improve estimates of personal exposures, compared to outdoor concentrations alone. However, they currently fall short of providing accurate predictions of personal exposure. The chemical, physical and phenomenological vagaries of acidic sulfate particles in the human environment are such that individual exposures cannot be predicted by outdoor data alone. Thus, there remains problems in determining the most appropriate exposure metric for epidemiological investigations.

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## S4.4

### LABILE SPECIES IN PARTICLE-BOUND WATER

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A number of potentially noxious, water-soluble gases are formed through the photochemical smog process. These include oxidants such as  $O_3$ ,  $H_2O_2$ , and  $RO_2$ ; acid gases such as  $SO_2$ ,  $HCl$ ,  $HNO_3$ ,  $HONO$ , and  $HCOOH$ ; and organic species such as  $HCHO$ , phenol and other polar organic compounds. During inhalation these gaseous species are removed by the wet surfaces of the nose, throat, and upper respiratory system and do not reach the deep lung. However, these species may dissolve in water associated with particles in the air and be transported with the particles into the deep lung. Since a major fraction of the mass of the ambient aerosol is made up of hygroscopic material, the amount of particle-bound water, and thus the amount of noxious material carried to the deep lung in particle-bound water, might be expected to correlate with the total particle mass. Thus it is possible to formulate a hypothesis for a biological effect, due to the noxious material carried to the lung in particle-bound water, which correlates with the total particle mass.

Particles of hygroscopic material such as  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ ,  $NH_4HSO_4$ ,  $NH_4NO_3$ , and  $H_2SO_4$  form liquid droplets with the amount of liquid water increasing as the relative humidity increases. The gas-phase atmospheric species listed above dissolve in this particle-bound water. Normal analytical techniques do not measure these species which evaporate when the particles dry out during storage, handling, and conditioning. Thus, there is no information on the composition or concentration of the dissolved components which evaporate. In this paper, a photochemical model will be used to calculate the potential concentration of a variety of water-soluble species, an aerosol equilibrium model to determine the amount of particle-bound water, and Henry's Law to determine the amount of these species which might be dissolved in the particle-bound water. The amount of oxidant, acid, or organic species which might be carried to the deep lung in particle-bound water will be compared to that which might reach the deep lung in the gas phase. Methods for testing the hypothesis that noxious gases dissolved in particle-bound water damage the lung will be discussed.

The information in this document has been funded wholly or in part by the U. S. Environmental Protection Agency. It has been subjected to Agency review and approved for publication.

## **SOURCES AND FACTORS INFLUENCING PERSONAL AND INDOOR EXPOSURES TO PARTICLES AND PAHs**

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During the fall of 1990, a large-scale field monitoring program for personal exposures to  $PM_{10}$  was conducted in Riverside, California. The pilot PTEAM (Particle Total Exposure Assessment Methodology) study, co-sponsored by the EPA and the California Air Resources Board, collected personal exposure data on  $PM_{10}$  mass, along with elemental and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) composition for 175 residents of Riverside. During this study, indoor and outdoor concentrations of  $PM_{10}$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$ , and elements were collected at each home; PAH data was collected in a subset of 125 homes. Air exchange measurements using PFT tracers were also made in subjects' homes. Twelve-hour recall time-activity diaries and questionnaires regarding exposure to ETS and other sources of particles and PAH were also obtained and later used in exposure modeling. This paper presents the results from a recent analyses of this data on the sources and factors influencing personal and indoor exposures to particles. Both physical and empirical statistical models were used to estimate the contributions of outdoor sources, cigarette smoking, and other sources. Elemental fingerprinting and application of regression and ANOVA techniques show that: (1) Personal  $PM_{10}$  concentrations are about 50% higher than corresponding outdoor and indoor  $PM_{10}$  concentrations; (2) Estimated penetration of outdoor  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  indoors during the daytime is 0.5 and 0.8, respectively; (3)  $PM_{10}$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$  and PAH concentrations in smoking homes are greater than those measured in non-smoking homes; (4) Contribution of each cigarette smoked to indoor  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  levels is about  $1.5 \mu g/m^3$ ; (5) K, Cl, Br, S and Ti are the principal elements associated with smoking sources of indoor elements; (6) About 65% of indoor  $PM_{10}$  and 75% of indoor  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations are associated with outdoor particle levels. The two main identified sources of indoor particles are smoking and cooking (each providing an average of about 20-30% of the total particle mass in homes where the activities took place); and (7) Smoking is the only indoor source of PAHs that was identified in this study. When considering all homes, outdoor sources are estimated to contribute on average 50% of indoor PAH and smoking 5% of indoor PAHs. However, in smoking homes 50% and 23% of PAHs come from outdoor and smoking sources, respectively.



## QUANTIFYING THE CONTRIBUTION OF SOURCES OF ORGANIC AEROSOLS IN ATMOSPHERIC SAMPLES

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Carbonaceous material is the largest single contributor to the fine particle burden in the atmosphere of cities. Organic compounds plus elemental carbon account for approximately 40% of this fine particle burden in Los Angeles. These carbonaceous aerosols contain organic compounds that are carcinogenic or mutagenic and hence may be of concern to health scientists. Yet until recently it has been very difficult to determine the relative contribution of specific emission sources to the ambient carbonaceous aerosol complex.

Molecular tracers can be sought that are diagnostic for the presence of material from specific source types that is present in atmospheric particulate matter samples. In order to identify such tracer compounds, a comprehensive source testing program has been conducted. Fifteen source types that account for approximately 80% of the primary aerosol carbon emissions in Southern California have been examined to determine the organic compounds present in their effluents. Source samples have been characterized by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry.

The results of this source test program demonstrate that organic compounds can be identified that act as potential tracers for specific sources. Hopanes and steranes can be used to quantify the motor vehicle exhaust aerosol concentration in ambient samples. Cholesterol can act as a tracer for airborne meat smoke. The ratios of odd to even carbon number higher molecular weight *n*-alkanes can be used to quantify the airborne plant debris concentration. Certain additives in tire rubber can be used to set an upper limit on atmospheric tire dust concentrations. Analyses of new source samples now can be used to define similarly useful tracers for atmospheric cigarette smoke and woodsmoke concentrations.

While the most abundant resolved organic compounds present in fine particulate cigarette smoke are nitrogen-containing heterocyclics (e.g., nicotine), other potential tracers that will be more stable and non-volatile in the outdoor urban atmosphere also are found. The *iso*- and *anteiso*-alkanes (C<sub>29</sub> - C<sub>34</sub>) are enriched in cigarette smoke particles and show a concentration pattern characteristic of tobacco leaf surface waxes that is distinctly different from leaf surface abrasion products shed from leaves of urban plants. Relative to major leaf surface wax *n*-alkanes, these *iso*- and *anteiso*-alkanes are enriched by a factor of more than forty in tobacco and tobacco smoke particles as compared to leaf surface waxes from Los Angeles plants. It is found that the *iso*- and *anteiso*-alkane concentration pattern generated by cigarette smoke is preserved in the urban atmosphere and is measured at levels that are comparable to emission estimates based on daily cigarette consumption.

Woodsmoke combustion experiments were conducted in a single-family house using a traditional undampened brick fireplace that is typical of those found in Southern California. Each wood type (seasoned pine and oak wood) or synthetic log was burned in separate combustion experiments, typically over the course of about 3 h for each experiment. Fireplace combustion of oak wood produces the lowest emission rates with 620 mg of total identified compound mass released per kg of oak wood burned. In comparison, pine wood combustion shows for the same compound classes an emission rate roughly 40% higher (910 mg/kg). Synthetic logs release identifiable

organic matter at emission rates higher (1300 mg/kg) than was found for pine or oak. On a detailed molecular level, the emissions of *n*-alkanes, *n*-alkenes, cyclohexylalkyls, *n*-alkanals, PAH, and oxy-PAH are highest for synthetic log combustion. Per kg of material burned, synthetic logs produce PAH emissions rates that are somewhat higher than was found for pine wood and roughly two times higher than for oak wood. In contrast, carboxylic acids show emission rates that are comparable for all three fireplace fuels. Unaltered natural resin acids (e.g., abietic, dehydroabietic acid) show highest concentrations when burning pine wood.

The tracer compounds identified in this study can be used together with an ambient data set to determine the contributions of each single source type to the organic aerosol measured at ambient sampling sites. For example, using the cigarette smoke marker compounds, ambient fine cigarette smoke particles are estimated to have been present at a concentration of 0.57 to 0.72  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in the Los Angeles outdoor air during 1982 which amounts to 2.0 to 2.5% of the fine particulate matter measured. Similar, using hopanes and steranes as markers for vehicular emissions, 11 to 26% of the atmospheric fine particle mass could be attributed to vehicular exhaust. Likewise, wood smoke from urban fireplaces contributed 11 to 14% using resin acids as woodsmoke markers.

The organic compound specific marker technique developed here provides a useful procedure for tracing particle-associated organic emissions in the urban atmosphere and partitioning the organic particle-phase constituents according to their origin.

#### Acknowledgments

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## LOADINGS, SIZE DISTRIBUTIONS AND SOURCES OF ORGANIC COMPOUND CLASSES IN LOS ANGELES AEROSOL

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### ABSTRACT

The organic fraction of urban aerosol contains hundreds to thousands of chemical species, many of which contribute to human mortality and morbidity. The identity and concentration of individual hydrocarbons which contribute to these adverse health effects can generally only be identified by performing mass spectroscopy on the extracts of aerosol collected on filters. Such analytical techniques are time consuming, expensive and are only able to identify a small fraction of the organic species present. Consequently, detailed analyses of aerosol composition are rare. For routine work, the analysis of organic aerosol has typically been limited to a determination of volatile (organic) carbon and non-volatile (elemental) carbon. Unfortunately, if the analysis of aerosol organics is confined to organic and elemental carbon, detailed resolution of sources, atmospheric reaction pathways and potential mortality and morbidity becomes impossible.

The search for a compromise between mass spectrometric methods, in which individual organic species are identified, and thermogravimetric methods, where only organic and elemental carbon are measured, has led to the development of compound class methods for characterizing ambient aerosol. These methods rely on infrared spectroscopy to determine the concentrations of groups of compounds, such as organonitrates, nitroaromatics and compounds containing carbonyl groups. This paper will briefly review the results obtained using organic compound classes analyses during the Southern California Air Quality Study. The results will include average functional group loadings and loadings as a function of aerosol size. The measured loadings will be compared to predictions based on the emissions inventory of the Southern California Air Basin.

**DETERMINATION OF THE SIZE DISTRIBUTION AND CHEMICAL COMPOSITION OF FINE PARTICULATE SEMI-VOLATILE ORGANIC MATERIAL IN URBAN ENVIRONMENTS USING DIFFUSION DENUDER TECHNOLOGY**

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Collection of particles on a filter results in underestimation of particulate organic compounds due to losses of the particulate semi-volatile organic material during sample collection, i.e. a "negative sampling artifact." This artifact results in the loss of about half of the particulate organic material during sampling. These semi-volatile organic compounds lost from particles can be correctly measured using a multi-component, multi-channel diffusion denuder sampling system. A multi-system, multichannel, high volume diffusion denuder sampler has been used for the determination of the particle size distribution and chemical composition of semi-volatile organic compounds in fine particles in three urban environments, Provo UT, Los Angeles CA and Philadelphia PA. Organic compounds lost from the particles included paraffinic and olefinic compounds, aromatic compounds, aromatic acids, and, organic acids and esters. Underestimation of the composition of semi-volatile organic compounds in particles is a function of molecular weight, chemical compound class and particle size. The majority of the organic compounds in urban particles in fine particles 0.8 to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  in size are semi-volatile organic compounds lost from the particles during sampling onto a filter. About half of the organic compounds in particles 0.4 to 0.8  $\mu\text{m}$  in size are lost from the particles during sampling. The majority of carbonaceous material in particles smaller than 0.4  $\mu\text{m}$  is not lost from the particles during sampling. The results obtained using the diffusion denuder sampling system indicate that the fine particulate organic constituents to which an urban population is exposed have not been well characterized or quantified in previous studies.

THE EFFECT OF VARIABLE AMBIENT PARTICLE SIZE DISTRIBUTIONS ON THE CUT  
POINT BETWEEN FINE AND COARSE MASS FRACTIONS

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A review of recent studies on the size distribution of ambient particles reveals considerable variability, both spatially and temporally, depending on the source of origin, geographical location, prevailing meteorological conditions and various other chemical and physical parameters associated with atmospheric particulate matter. However, there is generally a clear separation into fine and coarse modes, with a dividing point between 1.0 and 2.5 $\mu$ m where the mass of the two modes is at a minimum. In the 1970's EPA developed the dichotomous sampler to separate fine and coarse particles and choose a cut point at 2.5 $\mu$ m. However, recent data collected with new samplers, such as the size-fractionating MOUDI Impactor, reveal that both aged sulfates and particles associated with aerosol acidity reside in the range below 1.0 $\mu$ m and that smoke and kerosene heater emissions have also been found to reside in the submicrometer particle size range.

This paper will discuss the size distribution make-up of ambient aerosol from various sources and locations throughout the country. The effect of sampler cut points and sampling efficiencies on the accuracy of collection in eastern, combustion-dominated and western, wind-blown-dust-dominated settings will be examined. The potential implications of changing the cut point for monitoring and characterization of aerosols of environmental importance from 2.5 $\mu$ m to something nearer 1.0 $\mu$ m will be discussed.

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## A COLLABORATIVE EUROPEAN STUDY ON ACUTE EFFECTS OF AIRBORNE PARTICULATE MATTER

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Within the framework of the EC Environment Research Programme, a collaborative study was set up to investigate short-term effects of urban air pollution on the respiratory tract of children who suffer from chronic respiratory symptoms. Altogether, 14 research centers in 10 different countries participate in the study. Each center has selected one urban, and one rural panel of children with chronic respiratory symptoms, from responses to a screening questionnaire. Panels are followed over periods of two to three months in the winter of 1993/1994 with daily peak flow measurements and symptom and medication use diaries. Target panel size is 75. All children are further characterized with baseline spirometry and allergy skin tests. Exposure measurements consist of daily PM<sub>10</sub> and Black Smoke measurements in all locations for the period of observation. In most locations, existing monitoring stations supply further data on gaseous pollutants. The aim of investigating urban and rural panels is to have a possibility to compare effects observed at different levels of exposure, but under similar meteorological conditions. For further exposure characterization, indoor/outdoor measurements of nitrogen dioxide are made, and the amount of time spent outdoors is registered in the diary.

A wide range of exposure conditions is being studied. Urban locations range from relatively small cities such as Kuopio (Finland) and Pisa (Italy) to large metropolitan areas such as Berlin (Germany), Prague (Czech Republic) and Athens (Greece). Climate conditions range from sub-arctic (Kuopio, Finland and Umea, Sweden) to mediterranean (Pisa, Italy and Athens, Greece), and from maritime (Amsterdam, The Netherlands) to more continental (Cracow, Poland and Budapest, Hungary).

To obtain more information on source contributions, all PM<sub>10</sub> samples will be stored, and funding is being sought to secure further chemical characterization of the samples. Study locations are characterized by widely differing pollution mixtures, ranging from wood smoke in northern Sweden to traffic exhaust in western European cities, to coal smoke in some locations in central and eastern Europe.

To increase comparability of the data, peak flow meters, skin test materials, PM<sub>10</sub> samplers and Black Smoke samplers are centrally supplied to most centers. Technical details and operating procedures are discussed during site visits. Several interlaboratory comparisons have been set up. To improve comparability of questionnaires and diaries, all local translations have been back-translated into English by professional translators.

Data will be transferred to the coordinating center using a standardized format. Each center will perform analysis of its own data, and a central analysis will be performed by the coordinating center.

The study is being coordinated by the University of Wageningen, The Netherlands. Responsible scientists in the various participating centers are: Dr. Juha Pekkanen (National Institute of Public Health, Finland), dr. Bertil Forsberg (Umea University, Sweden), dr. Jocelyne Clench-Aas (National Institute for Air Research, Norway), dr. Norbert Englert (Institute for Water, Air and Soil Hygiene, Germany), dr. Heinz-Erich Wichmann (GSF Institute of Epidemiology, Germany), dr. Giuliano Baldini (University of Pisa, Italy), dr. Anna Kalandidi (University of Athens, Greece), dr. Janusz Haluszka (Tuberculosis and Lung Disease Institute, Poland), dr. Frantisek Kotesovec (Teplice hygiene Institute, Czech Republic), dr. Gregorz Niepsuj (Silesian Medical Academy, Poland), dr. Peter Rudnai (National Institute of Hygiene, Hungary), dr. Vladimir Vondra (Charles University, Czech Republic) and dr. Hans Welinder (University of Lund, Sweden).

## Hospitalization Rates for Respiratory Disease and Exposure to PM<sub>10</sub> Air Pollution. Utah County, Utah 1986-1991.

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Previous studies reported an association between exposure to PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution and hospitalization for respiratory disease in Utah County, Utah. We examined this relationship by extending the observation period by two years, adding hospital admission data for all hospitals in the county, dividing Utah County into high, intermediate and low levels of exposure, and comparing hospitalization rates to a rural county with low levels of air pollution.

There was an excess of respiratory disease hospital admissions in Utah County using 1987 as the referent (the year a steel plant in the county was closed) compared to admissions in all other years, but when the data were adjusted for biennial epidemics of respiratory syncytial virus the effect disappeared. The RR for PM<sub>10</sub> exposure greater than 75 mgm/m<sup>3</sup> controlled for age, sex and temperature estimated from a Poisson regression model for 1986-91 was 1.22 (95% CI 1.11, 1.34). But this excess was due to events during 1986-88 [RR of 1.32 (95% CI 1.09, 1.60)], in contrast to 1989-91 [RR was 1.04 (95% CI 0.91, 1.18)]. There was no association between daily PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution and hospitalization during the winters of 1989 and 1990.

No consistent dose response relationship based on distance from the steel plant could be found within Utah County. Hospitalization rates for respiratory disease in the rural county with low levels of PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution were similar, 3.64 cases/1000person-month compared to 3.62 to those seen in Utah County.

## THE RELATIONSHIP OF URGENT HOSPITAL ADMISSIONS FOR RESPIRATORY ILLNESSES TO AIR POLLUTION LEVELS IN MONTREAL

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The relationship between the number of daily urgent hospital admissions to 31 hospitals for respiratory illnesses and ambient air pollution in Montreal, Canada was investigated for warm periods between 1984 and 1988. Time series regression models controlled for seasonality, day of week, autocorrelation, temperature, and relative humidity. For July-August periods, all respiratory admissions were positively associated to the 8-hour maximal average for ozone 4 days prior to the admission day ( $p < 0.01$ ), but this was confounded by temperature. High intercorrelations between ozone, particulates and temperature, plus low levels of ozone (90%  $< 60$  ppb), may explain this finding. Asthma admissions in May-October periods increased by 2.7% over mean levels for each  $12 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in estimated  $\text{PM}_{10}$  levels 3 days prior to the admission day (95% confidence interval, 0.1 to 4.8%). In July-August periods, admissions for respiratory illnesses excluding asthma were 9.6% higher (95% confidence interval, 0.5 to 18.7%) when estimated  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  had exceeded  $8.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  4 days prior to the admission day compared to days when  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  was at or below this level. There were no significant findings for nonrespiratory admissions after controlling for weather. The effects found were at levels below the U.S. National Ambient Air Quality Standards for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  of  $150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , but are nevertheless relevant to public health, since hospital admissions are expected to be accompanied by considerably more frequent occurrences of less serious outcomes. The present findings suggest that particulate air pollution during photochemically active periods, is related to respiratory morbidity in Montreal.



**SUSPENDED PARTICULATES AND DAILY MORTALITY IN SANTA CLARA COUNTY: AN EXPLORATORY APPROACH**

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Most prior considerations of the possible relationship between human mortality and particulate air pollution have focused on the estimation of the magnitude of the association and the concomitant estimation of human health risk. While many of these studies have shown positive associations which are consistent with the hypothesis that particulate air pollution may cause premature deaths, few have examined the overall patterns in the data being considered to determine whether or not a causal relationship is strongly supported. The present study is a reexamination of daily mortality in Santa Clara County during the period 1980-1986, which has, in earlier studies, been found to be associated with particulate air pollution as measured by the variable coefficient of haze (COH). These data are examined using graphical data analysis techniques to determine whether the observed associations may be a result from an influential subset of the data, a joint association of mortality and COH with other explanatory variables, or suggest some alternative explanation. A particular focus of the study is examination of the stability of the relationship between mortality and COH when weather and air quality variables are considered as confounding factors. The study also examines association at multiple time lags to evaluate the stability and persistence of possible relationships between COH and mortality. The general implications of the results of this study for other investigations of the relationship between particulate air pollution and human mortality will be discussed.

## RESPIRATORY HEALTH STATUS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN RESIDING IN TEPLICE CZECH REPUBLIC.

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Northern Bohemia in the Czech Republic has among the highest levels of particulates and sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) in Europe. The annual averages of both PM<sub>10</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the highly polluted northern Bohemian district of Teplice (TEP) are typically near 100 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, but levels are much greater in the winter when emissions are high and temperature inversions occur. For example, this past February, the monthly average PM<sub>10</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> were well above 200 µg/m<sup>3</sup> with some 24-hr averages in excess of 800 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. For comparison, the annual PM<sub>10</sub> AND SO<sub>2</sub> averages in the cleaner southern Bohemian district of Prachatice (PRA) are about 30 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. We previously observed lower pulmonary function and a greater prevalence of respiratory symptoms in 8<sup>th</sup> grade children living in TEP as compared with children living in PRA. The primary purpose of this study was to ascertain if similar differences were discernable for younger children living in TEP and PRA. A second purpose was to determine if additional decrements in pulmonary function result from exposure during the winter pollution season in TEP. Respiratory questionnaire responses were obtained and forced expiratory spirometry was measured in 2<sup>nd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grade students in both districts. Respiratory symptoms (cough, phlegm, wheeze) were significantly more prevalent in all three grades in TEP than in PRA (P<0.01). The prevalence of chronic bronchitis for TEP children, all grades combined, was more than twice that of PRA children (P<0.01). Spirometry was initially measured in October 1992 following a 6 month period of perhaps the cleanest air in TEP in a decade. Height-adjusted FVC and FEV<sub>1</sub> were significantly lower in both boys and girls in all three grades in TEP than in PRA (P<0.01). District differences for both questionnaire responses and pulmonary function were still significant when controlling for gender, age, allergies, home smoking incidence, pets, private home/apartment residency or heating/cooking fuels. We repeated spirometry measurements in March 1993 following the winter pollution season. In TEP, no differences were observed between FVC and FEV<sub>1</sub> measured in October and March, suggesting that these children had chronically depressed lung function. No differences across times were observed in PRA, indicating our measurements were reliable. Our findings show a definite difference in the respiratory health status between children living in the two districts which may be due to the high levels of particulate and/or SO<sub>2</sub> that are present in TEP.

This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy.

## P1.6

### A Potential Confounder of Air Pollution Studies: The Periodicity in Admission Rates for Respiratory Disease in Children Age <1.

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Children under age one account for up to 25% of all hospital admissions for respiratory disease. Many of these admissions are caused by infection with respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), which causes bronchiolitis. Using data for the years 1985-1993 from hospitals serving defined populations in Utah in one urban county and five rural counties, we examined all admissions for respiratory disease (ICD Codes 466, 480-493) in children under age one. We also examined admissions coded to bronchiolitis and viral pneumonia (ICD codes 466, 480) since these are the most common diagnosis associated with RSV infections. We defined the winter season as December 1 to March 31. The results are displayed in the following table:

	<u>Rate Ratios</u>	<u>95% CIs</u>
Winter (Even Years/ Odd Years)		
All Respiratory Disease	2.56	2.38, 2.74
Bronchiolitis		
Viral Pneumonia	4.01	3.59, 4.51

There was a consistent 2.6 fold increase in respiratory admissions for children under age one in the winter of years ending in an even number (1986, 1988, 1990, 1992) compared to those ending in an odd number. The association was even stronger when examined in those admissions coded to bronchiolitis and viral pneumonia. This association was examined for one county (Utah County) with daily PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution data, and was independent of levels of air pollution. When this variable was inserted in a Poisson regression model of hospital admissions comparing admissions during the year a steel mill was closed to the years it was open, the association disappeared.

## A COMPARISON OF PM<sub>10</sub> FROM COMBUSTION OR NATURAL SOURCES

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Recently two studies of associations between hospital emergency room visits and fine particulate matter were conducted in Washington state. These data may provide some insight into the relative potency of sources of particulate matter less than 10 micrometers in diameters (PM<sub>10</sub>). One found a highly significant association between visits for asthma and PM<sub>10</sub> in Seattle, where the fine particles are from automotive sources and industry as well a relatively large component from wood smoke during the winter months. The other study was conducted in the Tri Cities area of eastern Washington where fine particles again are generated by vehicles and industry and, in an episodic fashion, from dust storms. That study found a small association between PM<sub>10</sub> and chronic bronchitis. In the Seattle study, PM<sub>10</sub> ranged from 6 to 103  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with an average of 30. The association between PM<sub>10</sub> and asthma visits was significant with 1 through 4 day lag times ( $p < 0.005$ ). In the Tri Cities study PM<sub>10</sub> ranged from 3 to 1,689  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with an average of 40. The value of 1,689  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  was recorded during a dust storm. The association between chronic bronchitis and PM<sub>10</sub> was the only significant relationship ( $p < 0.03$ ). This study did not find increased hospital visits associated with the episodic dust storms. What can be learned from a comparison of these two studies? At first glance, it appears that fine particles from the earth's crust are less likely to be associated with adverse health outcomes than fine particles from combustion sources. However, the individual characteristics of each air shed make comparisons risky. Therefore we have designed a protocol for further study of the health effects of fine particles in Spokane. Spokane, WA presents an unique opportunity to evaluate the effects of particles from combustion sources (industry, vehicles, grass and wood burning) and so called natural sources, that is, wind blown dust. In the Spokane study, air monitoring data for both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> will be available. Our studies show that less than one percent of the annual average mass of PM<sub>2.5</sub> is attributable to wind blown dust sources. Because elevated levels of wind-blown dust are associated with high wind speeds and elevated levels of combustion particles are associated with lower wind speeds, there is little if any correlation in time between the mass concentration of wind blown dust particles and that of combustion particles. Therefore simultaneous measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and relevant meteorological variables, and PM<sub>10</sub> at the same location will provide an invaluable air monitoring record that will allow us to examine which of these, if any, independent sources of PM<sub>10</sub> are correlated with adverse health effects. To supplement these data, some information on the chemical composition of the particles will be assayed as it relates to the presence of wind blown dust and various combustion sources. The health effects endpoints in this three year prospective study will be emergency room visits, hospital admissions, and mortality. Both respiratory and cardiac diagnoses will be tallied.

# SHORT-TERM AIR POLLUTION EXPOSURES AND LUNG FUNCTION CHANGES IN SCHOOLCHILDREN FROM THREE SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA COMMUNITIES OF CONTRASTING AIR QUALITY

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Experimental Design and Methods. This study addresses the question whether short-term (hourly or daily) air pollution changes in metropolitan Los Angeles cause short-term lung function or symptom changes in schoolchildren. Any such effects might be important to public health in themselves, or might be important confounders in studies of air pollution's longer-term health effects. During the 1992-93 school year we studied 269 children aged 8-11 from 3 elementary schools in 3 different communities -- Rubidoux (inland semirural, with high oxidant and high particulate but low strong-acid pollution), Upland (inland urban, high in oxidant, particulate, and strong acid), and Torrance (coastal urban, with moderate levels of primary pollutants but relatively low in oxidant). Each child underwent lung function and symptom evaluation mornings and afternoons Monday through Thursday, and again on Friday morning, during one school week each in fall, winter, and spring. Two different subgroups of children were studied in two successive weeks at each school, for a total of 6 weeks testing each season. Children were given activity diaries for each testing day, and filled out brief questionnaires summarizing their recent outdoor and indoor physical activity during each health testing session. Questionnaires concerning children's respiratory health history were submitted to parents. In all, 250 children provided health data for all 3 seasons and 240 provided parents' questionnaire data, but only 15 had complete daily test results. Most missing data reflected school holidays or trips, rather than illness absences. Concurrently with health testing, ozone ( $O_3$ ), nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2$ ), and respirable particulate (PM) concentrations (24-hour averages) were measured inside and outside the school, using passive sampling badges for gases and miniature cyclone samplers for PM. Cyclones collected particulates of approximately 5  $\mu m$  diameter and smaller. Personal environments of selected students (different ones each day) were monitored similarly, to determine how closely typical personal exposures tracked the pollutant concentrations measured at the school. On two days each week, strong acids and ionic components of PM were characterized using portable annular denuder samplers. Ozone was measured inside and outside the school on alternate days with an ultraviolet photometric monitor.

Preliminary Results of Air Monitoring. During testing weeks, outdoor PM was highest in Rubidoux while  $O_3$  and  $NO_2$  were highest in Upland (see table). Pollutant concentrations were usually lower inside schools than outdoors. Indoor/outdoor concentration ratios in Rubidoux averaged near 0.9 for PM, 0.25 for  $O_3$ , and 0.2 for  $NO_2$ , while the other two schools averaged near 1.6 for PM, 0.6 for  $O_3$ , and 0.5 for  $NO_2$ . Rubidoux's lower ratios may reflect more air conditioning and higher outdoor PM levels. (Ratios decreased as outdoor PM concentrations increased.) Personal PM exposures were generally higher than outdoor or indoor concentrations at schools; overall average 24-hr PM levels (in  $\mu g/m^3$ ) were 40 personal, 26 outdoors, and 21 indoors. Personal  $NO_2$  exposures averaged slightly below outdoor concentrations. Personal  $O_3$  exposure concentrations averaged about one-fourth of outdoor concentrations; these measurements showed substantial variation probably due to wind velocity effects. When all 3 communities/3 seasons were considered, average personal exposure concentrations correlated with concentrations of the same pollutant measured at the school or the nearest air monitoring station ( $r = 0.5$  to  $0.8$ ). Concentrations of different pollutants usually were less highly correlated. Accordingly, statistical analyses of health vs. air quality used monitoring data from nearest stations for  $O_3$  and  $NO_2$ , used data from outside schools for PM, and treated each pollutant's effect independently.

CONCENTRATIONS OF O<sub>3</sub> AND NO<sub>2</sub> (AT NEAREST STATION, IN PPB)  
AND PM (OUTSIDE SCHOOL, IN  $\mu\text{G}/\text{M}^3$ ), MEAN  $\pm$  S.D.

		Rubidoux	Upland	Torrance
Fall	O <sub>3</sub>	33 $\pm$ 6	34 $\pm$ 13	24 $\pm$ 12
	NO <sub>2</sub>	50 $\pm$ 12	64 $\pm$ 16	38 $\pm$ 15
	PM	47 $\pm$ 41	30 $\pm$ 24	19 $\pm$ 19
Winter	O <sub>3</sub>	15 $\pm$ 5	16 $\pm$ 12	15 $\pm$ 3
	NO <sub>2</sub>	29 $\pm$ 8	45 $\pm$ 11	30 $\pm$ 9
	PM	27 $\pm$ 21	15 $\pm$ 8	13 $\pm$ 4
Spring	O <sub>3</sub>	33 $\pm$ 8	19 $\pm$ 5	25 $\pm$ 5
	NO <sub>2</sub>	28 $\pm$ 7	30 $\pm$ 4	25 $\pm$ 4
	PM	26 $\pm$ 11	18 $\pm$ 7	26 $\pm$ 8

Preliminary Results of Health Testing. Parents reported a history of asthma for 19% of children in Rubidoux, 12% in Upland, and 10% in Torrance. Exploratory statistical analyses indicated that differences in lung function (forced expired volume in one second, FEV<sub>1</sub>) between towns, between a.m. and p.m. tests, or between children with and without wheezing history reported by parents, were not significant ( $P > 0.05$ ). (Data were adjusted for individual size, gender, and race when appropriate.) Variation of lung function with time (day to day, season to season) and with daily pollution levels was evaluated using repeated-measures analysis of covariance for incomplete data sets (program 5V, BMDP Statistical Software, Los Angeles). Maximum likelihood estimation was employed with general autoregressive analytical models. When all 3 communities/3 seasons were included in the analysis, only time effects were significant, with an estimated mean FEV<sub>1</sub> loss of 30 mL over 4 successive testing days ( $P < .001$ ) and estimated mean FEV<sub>1</sub> growth of 43 mL from fall to spring ( $P = 0.004$ ). Estimated overall mean FEV<sub>1</sub> was 1971 mL. These results appear consistent with previous findings. The cause of FEV<sub>1</sub> loss during several successive days' testing is unknown; it may relate to changing forced expiratory effort or to physiologic effects of repeated forced expirations on airways or respiratory muscles. Estimated changes of FEV<sub>1</sub> with NO<sub>2</sub> concentration were essentially zero. Estimated changes of FEV<sub>1</sub> with increasing PM or O<sub>3</sub> were negative, but not significantly different from zero ( $P > 0.1$ ). The 95% confidence limits for the regression coefficient relating FEV<sub>1</sub> change (mL) with O<sub>3</sub> concentration (ppb, average for 24 hr preceding the morning FEV<sub>1</sub> measurement) were +0.5 and -0.9 mL/ppb. Similarly, 95% confidence limits for the coefficient relating FEV<sub>1</sub> to PM concentration were +0.1 and -0.5 mL/ $(\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3)$ . By this analytical model, any short-term effects of ambient PM or O<sub>3</sub> on these children's lung function appear to be smaller and/or less consistent than the small losses typically found with repeated testing. This model assumes that pollutant effects are linear with concentration, and independent of town, season, and other environmental variables. Additional analyses included only one season's or one town's data, or else incorporated interactions between town and season effects. Some of those analyses indicated significant effects of one or more pollutants. However, the significant effects were biologically implausible in some instances (FEV<sub>1</sub> improved with increasing pollution), suggesting influence by confounding factors. Firmer conclusions about pollution effects will require more data, and testing of other plausible statistical models. A second year of studies on the same children is in progress.

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**SEPARATING THE EFFECTS OF TEMPERATURE AND SEASON ON DAILY MORTALITY FROM THOSE OF AIR POLLUTION IN LONDON: 1965-1972**

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Most analyses of the large data base of daily mortality and indices of pollution in London, England for 1958-1972 have dealt with the confounding influence of ambient temperature and/or season by using empirical adjustment models in the determination of the regression coefficients for the pollutants. The conclusions about the influence of the measured pollutants ( $\text{SO}_2$ , BS, and  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) on mortality have varied due, at least in part, to the selection of the form of the temperature/season adjustment model. We have taken an alternate approach to separate the influences of temperature, season, and ambient pollutant levels on daily mortality. In each season, the majority of days fall within one or two temperature ranges, within which the daily death rates also fall within narrow ranges. Within these restricted temperature and mortality ranges, there are similar and highly significant associations between the daily concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and daily mortality that are not confounded by temperature or seasonal variations. By contrast, the associations between Black Smoke and mortality in these restricted ranges are much weaker or absent. Supported by Cooperative Agreement # CR818325 from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and Center Grant # ES00260 from the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences.

## EFFECTS OF AMBIENT AND INDOOR AIR POLLUTION ON PEAK EXPIRATORY FLOW RATES IN A PANEL OF ADULT ASTHMATICS

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During the winter of 1987-88, an intensive daily air monitoring effort took place in Denver, Colorado. We recruited a panel of adult asthmatics living in the Denver metropolitan area to record daily data on their respiratory symptoms, medication use, peak expiratory flow (PEF) and indoor exposures. In previous analyses of the outdoor pollutants, we found that: (1) ambient particulate hydrogen ion ( $H^+$ ) was significantly associated with several indicators of asthma status, including daily prevalence of moderate or severe cough and shortness of breath, particularly among individuals concurrently reporting the presence of a respiratory infection; (2) PM<sub>2.5</sub> was associated with cough; and (3) sulfates were associated with shortness of breath. In this presentation we report analyses of the daily PEF values recorded by this population.

Participants were instructed on the use of a mini-Wright peak flow meter, and recorded the values of three morning and three evening PEF maneuvers. Of the 256 individuals who had started the study, 187 submitted daily diaries with reasonably complete information on symptoms, PEFs, and indoor exposures. In this analysis, we used two related dependent variables: the highest of each individual's morning PEF values and another dependent variable based on standardized PEF values. The latter were derived by subtracting each participant's mean PEF from each observed value for that individual, divided by the standard deviation for all PEF values for that individual. The time-series regression analyses incorporated corrections for serial correlation. Of the particulate pollutant variables available for this analysis ( $H^+$ , sulfates, and PM<sub>2.5</sub>), only  $H^+$  showed a statistically significant relation with daily PEF. The mean ambient daily  $H^+$  concentration (12-hr average) during this study was 8.15 neq/m<sup>3</sup> (range 0.59 - 44.25). Daily indoor pollutant exposures (emissions from gas stoves or cigarettes) did not appear to be related to PEF fluctuations. However, the presence of residential sources of indoor combustion (wood-burning devices, gas stoves, and cigarettes) -- suggesting the likelihood of chronic exposures -- was strongly related to lower overall PEF values in this population.



STATISTICAL METHODS FOR ASSESSING ASSOCIATION  
BETWEEN DAILY MORTALITY AND PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION

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Recently several studies have shown an association between daily mortality and particulate air pollution. Statistical methods used in these studies were Poisson regression models in which parameter estimates and corresponding standard errors were obtained using generalized estimating equations (GEE). GEE was originally described by Liang and Zeger (Biometrika 1986;73:13-22) in the context of longitudinal data analysis. Since the structure of data for evaluating an association between daily mortality and particulate air pollution differ greatly from that of data for which the GEE method was originally intended, there are concerns regarding the appropriateness of the GEE method used in recent studies and the conclusions regarding health effects of particulate air pollution.

In this presentation we will review Poisson regression models for correlated data and examine the appropriateness of the GEE method for the analysis of daily mortality and air pollution. The results of the simulation study will be presented. The simulation study suggests that a type I error rate (i.e., declaring statistical significance when in fact there is no effect) of the GEE method is much higher than the conventional 5% when applied to time-series data. We will discuss possible alternative statistical methods for assessing an association between daily mortality and particulate air pollution.

**Reanalysis of the Relationship between Air Pollution and Emergency Department Visits in Steubenville, Ohio.** LM Neas, J Schwartz, J Samet, DW Dockery. Environmental Epidemiology Program, Depts. of Environmental Health and Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health and Channing Laboratory, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, and Dept. of Medicine, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM.

This study reassessed the Samet et al. (1979) analysis of hospital emergency visits in Steubenville, Ohio. The data included 46,004 visits to the emergency department of a large, urban hospital over a 488 day period during the months of March, April, October, and November of 1974-1977. The daily counts included an average of 24.5 visits with respiratory diagnoses and 2.7 visits with cardiovascular diagnoses. The 24-hour mean TSP level was  $156 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with a range from 14 to  $696 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . The previous analysis calculated the mean deviation in the number of daily visits from the average number of visits for that season and day of week by quartile of pollutant and a binary indicator of temperature. This reanalysis uses Poisson regression to directly model the daily number of visits as a linear function of the pollutant after adjustment for month of study, year, day of week, and temperature. The new model adjusted for autoregression and overdispersion. The effect of temperature was modeled both as separate linear terms for each season and as separate generalized weighted running moving average terms (LOESS) for each season. In the latter model, a  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  difference in the 24-hour mean TSP level was associated with an increase in the number of emergency visits for respiratory conditions (rate ratio (RR) = 1.03, 95% CI 1.01-1.05). Sulfur dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ) and ozone were not significantly associated with respiratory visits. Similar effects of TSP were observed for asthma (RR = 1.05, 95% CI 0.96-1.15) and for pneumonia (RR = 1.11, 95% CI 0.99-1.24), but the small daily number of events for asthma (0.9) and for pneumonia (0.5) produced imprecise results. Daily hospital admissions for cardiovascular disease were elevated during the 1952 London smog episode and recent mortality studies have reported associations between airborne particles and daily cardiovascular mortality. In the Steubenville data, emergency visits for cardiovascular conditions were associated with both TSP (RR = 1.06, 95% CI 1.00-1.12) and with a  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  difference in the 24-hour mean  $\text{SO}_2$  level (RR = 1.12, 95% CI 1.01-1.24). The current analysis confirms the general conclusion of the previous analysis with properly adjusted estimates of the linear association of TSP with hospital emergency visits for respiratory conditions and extends the analysis to the association of TSP with emergency cardiovascular visits.

**ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN DAILY MORTALITY, OZONE AND PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION IN TORONTO, CANADA**

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Recent time-series studies have reported associations between daily mortality and various measurements of airborne particulates, including TSP, PM<sub>10</sub> and coefficient of haze (COH). However, only a few studies (Kinney & Ozkaynak, *Environ. Res* 54; 99-120, 1991 and Kinney & Ozkaynak, *Am. Rev. Resp. Dis.* 145;A95, 1992) have reported an association between daily mortality and previous day hourly-maximum oxidant levels in major urban areas like Los Angeles and New York City. We have recently gathered and analyzed an extensive aerometric particulate data base from Toronto, Canada, over a 19-year period, from 1972-1990. These data were combined to provide total and cause-specific daily mortality counts for multiple age groups, available through a health data base maintained by Statistics Canada. The daily aerometric time-series records, which included pollution data on TSP, SO<sub>4</sub>, COH, O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NO<sub>2</sub>, were obtained from sixteen air monitoring stations from five boroughs of Toronto. Meteorological and visibility data were obtained from Pearson Airport, in Toronto. We conducted multiple regression analyses of mortality on the pollution and meteorological variables after detrending the mortality and pollution series to control for seasonal variations in the data. A model which included temperature, relative humidity, same day maximum one-hour O<sub>3</sub> and either same day TSP or estimated PM<sub>10</sub> explained approximately 2% of the variation in the detrended daily mortality. Regression slopes ( $\beta$ ) for PM<sub>10</sub>, TSP, and ozone were  $\beta_{\text{TSP}} = 0.011$  deaths/ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),  $\beta_{\text{PM}_{10}} = 0.022$  deaths/ $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), and  $\beta_{\text{O}_3} = 0.017$  deaths/ppb ( $p < 0.01$ ), respectively. The estimated contribution of each pollutant to daily mortality at the mean pollution levels were 2.3% for either PM<sub>10</sub> or TSP and 1.5% for ozone. The total estimated contribution of particles and ozone to daily mortality was about 4%. This analysis however could not distinguish the estimated mortality effects of TSP from those associated with exposures to PM<sub>10</sub>. The findings from this analysis are consistent with results from previous epidemiologic investigations conducted for other U.S. metropolitan areas.

## **TIME SERIES OF MORTALITY AND AMBIENT AIR POLLUTION IN CALIFORNIA: AN ASSESSMENT OF RESULTS, 1965-1991.**

Paolo F. Ricci, Ph. D., J.D., and Joseph Catalano, CCM.

This paper discusses the preliminary findings from statistical time-series analysis in which air pollution, climatic, and mortality data from several California counties were studied to determine how exposure to air pollution is associated with increases in mortality rates, from 1965 to 1991. The major coastal urban and non-urban counties in California included are: Los Angeles, Riverside, San Bernardino, Orange, San Diego, Santa Clara, San Francisco, Contra Costa, San Mateo, Marin, and Alameda. The air pollutants thus far included are: Total Suspended Particulate Matter, O<sub>3</sub> and Total Oxidants, SO<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and Pb. The climatic data are temperature and relative humidity. The (ICD, Revisions 8 and 9) mortality rates, standardized to 1980 and made sex, race, and age-specific, are those resulting from all causes, all cancers, lung and respiratory cancers, cardiovascular disease, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, by county of residence. The population at risk is developed from the US Bureau of the Census yearly age, sex, race-specific county level data, as well from intercensal estimates. The air pollution and climatic variable were developed from long-term records at the following stations: Livermore, San Jose, San Francisco, Azusa, North Long Beach, Los Angeles, Anaheim, Riverside/Rubidoux, Fontana, San Diego, and El Cajon.

The methods being applied in this research are generalizations of AR-MA processes through multivariate transfer functions, and state-space estimation. The results so far achieved indicate that the time series of air pollution and mortality are complex, require detrending and differencing, and that some transfer functions are characterized by feedbacks.

The preliminary results obtained the research indicate that the northern California areas studied are less polluted than the southern ones; nevertheless, and contrary to expectation, some of the mortality time series in the north are higher than in the south.

The potential for establishing probabilistic causation on the basis of temporal changes in the probability of response is being studied on the basis of probabilistic logic. Continuing work on the monthly time-series, QA/QC of the data, and the extension of the study to include PM<sub>10</sub> and sulfates<sub>10</sub> are currently under way.

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## **HUMAN MORTALITY, AIR POLLUTION, AND UNEMPLOYMENT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA**

by

Joseph E. Haring, Ph.D., Pasadena Research Institute with the  
assistance of E. S. Vataru, California Institute of Technology

### **Abstract**

**Background.** Environmental regulations in the United States are based on the presumption that human mortality is adversely affected by air pollution. Many rules are cast in terms of risks of death per million population. Recent studies published in the New England Journal of Medicine and elsewhere have reported associations between air pollution and mortality rates. These studies have not yet persuaded the medical profession to accept a causal relation between smog and human mortality. A new study of 30 cities by Merva and Fowles asserts that mortality is more tightly correlated with unemployment than with air pollution.

**Methods.** In this study we estimated the effects of air pollution on mortality in Southern California, defined as Los Angeles, Orange, San Bernardino and Riverside Counties, while controlling for unemployment. Similarly, we estimated the effects of unemployment on mortality, while controlling for air pollution.

**Results.** Mortality rates in Southern California were most strongly associated with unemployment. After adjusting for unemployment, we observed statistically significant and robust associations between air pollution and mortality.

**Conclusions.** Although there are numerous other factors worthy of separate study, these results suggest that both unemployment and air pollution contribute to excess mortality in Southern California.

## P2.1

### VARIABILITY OF PARTICLE DEPOSITION WITH AGE IN ADULTS WITH NORMAL LUNG FUNCTION.

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Recent epidemiological studies suggest increased morbidity among the elderly and very young associated with particulate air pollution. We are currently investigating the variability in fractional deposition (DF) of inhaled particles in subjects with normal lung function aged 8 - 70. To date we have measured DF in thirty five (35) subjects with normal pulmonary function ranging in age from 18 - 60. Each subject inhaled  $2\mu\text{m}$  monodisperse, carnauba wax particles while following a breathing pattern previously determined by respiratory inductance plethysmography in that subject (i.e. that subject's spontaneous pattern at rest). Breath by breath DF (ratio of particles not exhaled /total particles inhaled) was determined by photometry /pneumotach at the mouth. We have found no variability of DF with age ( $r=.02$ ), mean DF =  $.28\pm.07$  (ages 18-40) and  $.27\pm.05$  (ages 41-60). The mean tidal volumes ( $V_t$ ) and breathing periods (T) for the two groups were also not different,  $V_t=372$  ml and  $T=3.57$  sec for the young adults ( $n=18$ ) and  $V_t=436$  ml and  $T=3.53$  sec in the older group ( $n=17$ ). Multiple regression analysis shows that among all subjects the variability in DF is best predicted by variability in the breathing period (T) associated with the pattern used to breathe the particles, the ratio FRC/TLC (resting lung volume to total lung capacity), and specific airway resistance (sRaw). Greater DF occurs for increasing T, decreasing FRC/TLC, and increasing sRaw. We are presently studying subjects over age 60 both with and without ( $> 30$  pack years smoking history) normal lung function and will conclude by studying children age 8-18. Information derived from this study should prove useful in determining age-relative risks that may be associated with the inhalation of pollutant particles in ambient air. Supported by USEPA Cooperative Agreement CR812738. This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy.

## P2.2

### NUMBER CONCENTRATION AND MASS CONCENTRATION AS DETERMINANTS OF BIOLOGICAL RESPONSE TO INHALED IRRITANT PARTICLES.

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Particulate pollutants are mixtures of a variety of chemical species. Sulfuric acid aerosol is a prominent irritant component of particulate matter less than  $10\mu\text{m}$  (PM<sub>10</sub>) that can produce adverse health effects. We hypothesized that, in addition to the total mass concentration of sulfuric acid, the number of sulfuric acid particles was also an important factor in producing acid-induced lung injury. To test this, guinea pigs were exposed for 3 hr to either: filtered air; inert carbon particles at  $10^8$  particles/cc; sulfuric acid at  $350\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  layered on  $10^8$ ,  $10^7$ ,  $10^6$ /cc carbon particles; sulfuric acid at 50, 100, 200, and  $300\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  layered on  $10^8$ /cc carbon particles. Alteration in intracellular pH (pHi) of harvested macrophages was used as an index of irritant potency. At a fixed number concentration of particles ( $10^8$  particles/cc), there was a sulfuric acid concentration-dependent decrease in pHi. Furthermore, sulfuric acid ( $350\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) layered on  $10^8$  particles/cc carbon particles, but not at other number concentrations, decreased pHi of macrophages. These results suggest that there is a threshold for both number concentration and mass concentration for the aerosols to produce a biological response, and that epidemiologic studies should consider other aerosol characteristics in addition to mass when attempting to relate health endpoints to ambient pollutant measurements. Supported by EPRI (RP2155-2), EPA (R819342), CIAR (92-04), and NIEHS (ES00260).

# **INFLAMMATORY MEDIATORS RELEASED BY HUMAN ALVEOLAR MACROPHAGES AFTER EXPOSURE TO SILICA AND TITANIUM DIOXIDE.**

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Repeated inhalation of silica dust can lead to inflammation and fibrosis in human lung and in experimental animal models. In animals the alveolar macrophage seems to play a pivotal role in this process. The objective of this study was to determine the responses of human alveolar macrophages to silica in vitro and assess their possible contribution to silica-induced fibrosis. As a control, macrophages were also exposed to titanium dioxide, a "nuisance dust" which is relatively innocuous when inhaled by rats. Macrophages were obtained from healthy volunteers and adhered to plastic tissue culture dishes for 1 hour in PBS supplemented with calcium, BSA and glucose. Cells were incubated for 3 or 24 hours in the presence of silica (100, 60, 10, and 0  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) or titanium dioxide (50, 30, and 5  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ). Supernatants were removed for eicosanoid and cytokine analysis and RNA isolated from the cells. These concentrations were chosen because they did not induce significant cytotoxicity as assessed by LDH or chromium release. Silica caused substantial release of  $\text{LTB}_4$ ,  $\text{LTC}_4/\text{D}_4/\text{E}_4$ , and 5-HETE after 3 hours; and dose-dependent decreases in  $\text{PGE}_2$  and thromboxane production after 24 hours. Endogenous levels of TNF, IL-1, and IL-6 were low in unexposed macrophages and were not increased at either the protein or mRNA level after silica exposure. Acid phosphatase activity was increased at both 3 and 24 hours. Surprisingly, macrophages reacted to titanium in a similar fashion as they did to silica. The pattern of eicosanoid and monokine production after exposure to silica or titanium was different from that obtained when macrophages were incubated with 10  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  LPS for 3 or 24 hrs, indicating that the response to the particles was not just due to general cellular activation. This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy.



**ACIDIC AEROSOLS: EFFECTS ON ALVEOLAR MACROPHAGE FUNCTION AND OZONE RESPONSIVENESS IN HUMANS.** M.W. Frampton, P.E. Morrow, M.J. Utell. University of Rochester School of Medicine, Rochester, NY

Particulate matter in the atmosphere has been associated with increased respiratory morbidity and mortality. Sulfuric acid aerosols, the predominant particulate species in many industrialized areas, may act directly by impairing host defenses, or indirectly by potentiating effects of other pollutants such as ozone. To examine direct effects of acidic aerosols, we exposed 7 healthy nonsmoking volunteers to aerosols of either  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  or  $\text{NaCl}$ ,  $1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  for 3 hours, with intermittent exercise. Lung function was measured, and bronchoalveolar lavage was performed 1 hour after exposure. There were no significant changes in lung function. The proportion of cells recovered were similar following  $\text{NaCl}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  exposure, indicating the absence of an airway inflammatory response. Release of superoxide anion by alveolar macrophages (AM) stimulated with opsonized zymosan decreased following  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  exposure ( $\text{NaCl}$ ,  $3.49 \pm 0.25 \text{ nmol}$ ;  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $3.01 \pm 0.28 \text{ nmol}$ ,  $p < 0.06$ ). Similar findings have been observed in rabbits exposed in an identical manner. To determine whether  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  aerosols potentiate airway function responses to ozone in asthmatic subjects, 30 allergic asthmatic subjects underwent 3-hour exposures to  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$   $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{NaCl}$  (control) aerosols (in random order), followed 24 hours later by 3-hour exposures to ozone (0.08, 0.12, or 0.18 ppm). Analyses revealed evidence for direct effects of ozone on lung function, and for interactions between aerosol and ozone exposure both immediately after ( $p = 0.005$ ) and 4 hours after ( $p = 0.030$ ) exposure. There were no significant effects of exposures on symptoms. These studies suggest that exposure to  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  at  $1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  may alter AM release of superoxide anion in healthy volunteers, and exposure to  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  may enhance responses to ozone exposure in asthmatic subjects.

## P2.5

### Comparing Human and Animal Extrapolations for Cancer Potency of Airborne Crystalline Silica: Implications for PM 10 Risk Determinations

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The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has judged that the evidence for silica's carcinogenicity in animals is sufficient, and in humans it is limited. Using the Global 86 computer model developed by Crump and co-workers, we estimated the animal and human cancer potency slopes and compared the findings. The animal findings were based on the inhalation studies by Dagle et al. (1986), Holland et al. (1983, 1986), and Muhle et al. (1989). The model requires first a conversion of experimental dust levels to human equivalent dose, and then, a calculation of the upper bound cancer risk level at a concentration of 1 mg of dust per m<sup>3</sup> of air. This value is converted into (unit) cancer slope factors based on lifetime exposure to silica dust in units of 1 (μg/m<sup>3</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>. The cancer slope factors ranged from  $2.3 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $6.0 \times 10^{-3}$  among the three experimental studies. The epidemiologic findings were among gold workers (Hnizdo and Sluis-Cremer, 1991) and among diatomaceous earth workers (Checkoway et al., 1992) who demonstrated dose-response lung cancer findings for quartz exposure. The cancer slope factors ranged from  $6.8 \times 10^{-7}$  to  $1.85 \times 10^{-5}$  for lifetime exposure to 1 (μg/m<sup>3</sup>)<sup>-1</sup> of silica dust. Because of large uncertainties extrapolating to humans from animal data, more rational risk assessments are achieved when using data from silica-exposed workers than when relying on solely on laboratory findings. Risk managers for PM 10 and for toxic air pollutants now have some novel approaches to address airborne silica emissions using more rational assessments of risk.

## P2.6

### ASSESSMENT OF LOCAL DEPOSITION OF INHALED PARTICLES IN HUMAN LUNGS

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Deposition site and dose of inhaled particles within the lung are key determinants in risk assessment of particulate pollutants. Traditionally, particle deposition in the lung is measured from the entire lung and regional deposition information within the lung is deduced from other indirect measurements such as radioaerosol clearance. In the present study, we developed a method that can measure regional deposition of inhaled particles within the lung in situ using serial bolus delivery technique. A small bolus (40 ml half width) of monodisperse aerosols (1, 3 and 5  $\mu\text{m}$  dia.) was delivered sequentially to a specific volumetric depth of the lung ( $V_p = 100\text{-}400$  ml with a 50 ml increment) in 22 healthy subjects (11 male and 11 female). The subject inhaled the bolus via a laser aerosol photometer (25 ml dead volume) with a constant flow rate ( $Q = 150, 250$  and  $500$  ml/s) and exhaled with the same flow rate without a pause to the residual volume: the inspiratory volume was 500 ml from the FRC in all tests. Deposition efficiency (DE) of and deposition fraction (DF) in local regions as well as total deposition fraction (TDF) of the lung were obtained. The results were compared with existing experimental data. It was found that TDF values agreed well with existing human data. However, regional DF was not consistent with conventional data. The results also show that TDF is consistently greater in female than male regardless of particle size and flow rate used. The increase was particularly prominent in the shallow but not in the deeper volumetric regions of the lung. The results also suggest that local or regional enhancement of deposition occurs in healthy subject and that the local enhancement may have significant health consequences in patients with lung disease. *This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy.*

## P2.7

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN AMBIENT PARTICLE CONCENTRATOR (FOR HUMAN AND ANIMAL INHALATION EXPOSURE STUDIES).

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A number of studies have underlined the importance of the acute and chronic effects of ambient particles on respiratory health. Because fine particles are capable of penetrating deeply into the respiratory system, most of the health studies have focused on the inhalable portion of the particle size spectrum. Previous studies to examine exposure/response relationships between particle exposure and adverse respiratory effects have been based on artificial preparations, or collected and resuspended ambient particles, rather than the natural material found in ambient air. Artificial particles may not be representative and collected particles may be difficult to redisperse. In addition, the chemical characteristics of ambient particles may change upon resuspension.

A new technique has been developed to enable us to generate ambient particle concentrations at desired levels up to  $1\text{-}2\text{ mg/m}^3$  at flow rates in the range of 5-25 liters/minute. By using a dilution system, the concentration of other pollutants, temperature and relative humidity can be controlled. This approach makes it possible to use ambient particles for inhalation studies and it also allows for control of potential confounding factors. This technique employs two slit-nozzle virtual impactors connected in series, each of them operating with a  $0.15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  50% cutpoint. The virtual impactors were characterized separately in terms of their cutpoints and interstage losses. Ambient aerosol containing particles in the size range  $0.15\text{-}2.50\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  can be concentrated in two steps, as it is drawn through the virtual impactors. The sampling flow rates are  $1\text{ m}^3/\text{minute}$  and 100 liters/minute in the first and second virtual impactors, respectively. The concentrated aerosol can be supplied to a human or animal exposure chamber with a peristaltic pump that minimizes interstage particle losses.

## PARTICLE INSTILLATION IN HUMAN LUNGS: A METHOD FOR MEASURING LUNG RESPONSE TO INERT PARTICLES

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Recent epidemiologic studies suggest that changes in morbidity and mortality may be associated with fluctuations in the 24-hour average concentration of suspended ambient respirable particulate matter. Possible mechanisms for such effect remain obscure. We have used bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) to study the response of the human lung to intrabronchial instillation of suspended "inert" particles. Twenty ml sterile physiologic saline solution (PSS) containing 3 to  $30 \times 10^7$  iron oxide particles ( $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  physical diameter) were instilled into the lingula of healthy non-smoking volunteers ( $n=17$ ) via bronchoscopy. The suspensions were free of endotoxin (Limulus amoebocyte lysate assay, Endotect, ICN Biomedical). As a control, 20 ml PSS (without particles) was instilled into a segment of the right middle lobe. We quantified the total cells, percent of several cell types and cells containing particles recovered by BAL from both segments at one to 91 days post-instillation (PI). Returns from an initial 20 ml lavage provided a "bronchial" fraction. Returns from 5 x 50 ml subsequent aliquots were pooled to provide an "alveolar" fraction. At one day PI ( $n=6$ ), the mean number of cells recovered from the lingula was increased in both the bronchial ( $20.6 \times 10^5$  cells) and alveolar ( $19.7 \times 10^7$  cells) fractions compared to the control ( $6.7 \times 10^5$  cells and  $2.7 \times 10^7$ , respectively). Neutrophils represented 53% of bronchial fraction cells and 31% of alveolar fraction cells from the lingula, but only 29.0 and 1.6% respectively from the control lobe. Mononuclear cells also were increased in the lingular lavageate. These changes had completely regressed by 4 days PI ( $n=2$ ). Total AM containing at least one particle diminished only slightly from  $6.1 \times 10^6$  at one day to  $4.4 \times 10^6$  at 91 days, however, the proportion of particle-laden AM increased from 5.8% to 21.7%. These findings indicate that "inert," insoluble particles remain sequestered in AM for extended periods and that such particles may cause a transient acute inflammatory response whose genesis is under study. This response may be relevant to exploring mechanisms that might underlie health effects of exposure to ambient respirable particulate matter. [Supported by USEPA Cooperative Agreement CR817643. This is an abstract of a proposed presentation and does not necessarily reflect EPA policy].

## INHALABILITY CURVES FOR HUMANS AND FOR SMALL LABORATORY ANIMALS

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Inhalability or inspirability is defined as that fraction of particles in an aerosol that can enter the nose or mouth upon inhalation. In contrast, respirability refers to those particles that, after inhalation, can penetrate to the area of gas exchange. The need for inhalability functions has long been recognized in the industrial or occupational setting. Consideration of inhalability is important in evaluating health effects for risk assessment for two reasons. First, for 'large' particles, doses to the upper respiratory tract (URT) will be overestimated if an adjustment for inhalability is not made. If the toxic effect is in the URT, then the actual dose delivered to these tissues must be determined to aid in understanding the mechanisms of the response. If the toxic effect is in the lower respiratory tract or is systemic, predicted doses may also be overestimated without an adjustment for inspirability. Second, inhalability functions can differ among species due to anatomical and physiological differences. In extrapolating from laboratory animals to humans, therefore, it is important to understand how inhalability differs among species.

This statistical analysis suggests that ambient concentration is a good predictor of inhaled concentration in humans for particles up to about  $10 \mu\text{m d}_{\text{ae}}$ . In small laboratory animals, however, these data indicate that the inhalable portion of the ambient concentration begins to decline for particles as small as  $1.0 \mu\text{m d}_{\text{ae}}$ . As indicated by the 95% confidence intervals, the variability for both humans and animals can be substantial. In the animals this may be explained in part by the fact that the study was not designed to study inhalability. Estimates of this curve could be improved by generating experimental data to measure inhalability directly in small laboratory animals. The human data are based on an experiment using 4 subjects inhaling particles of 4 different sizes. Extension of such work to include more subjects and more particle sizes could provide valuable information on inhalability in humans and perhaps address questions relating to inter- versus intrasubject variability.

These functions are applied to predicted URT deposition fractions to examine the effect of making this inhalability adjustment on predicted dose and to consider how extrapolated dosimetric information between animals and humans might be affected. This analysis suggests that in estimating dose delivered to a target tissue in animals it is important to consider the effects of inhalability. In comparing dosimetry between animals and humans, adjusting for inhalability may change the magnitude of the predicted difference in delivered dose substantially.

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**RAT - HUMAN DIFFERENCES IN MACROPHAGE OXIDANT PRODUCTION BY POLLUTANT PARTICLES.** Q. Rahman<sup>1</sup>, J. Norwood<sup>2</sup>, G. Oberdorster<sup>3</sup> and G. Hatch<sup>2</sup>. <sup>1</sup>Indus. Tox. Res. Center, Lucknow, India; <sup>2</sup>H.E.R.L., U.S. E.P.A., Res. Tri. Park, NC., <sup>3</sup>Univ. of Rochester School of Med., Rochester, N.Y.

Macrophages and inflammatory cells generate active oxygen species in the process of killing and degrading microorganisms. Air pollutant particles may be ingested by macrophages and stimulate the same mechanisms to produce a long-term oxidative burden to the lung if particles are not degraded. We are comparing rat and human alveolar macrophages (AM) in their oxidative response to inhaled particles through the use of luminol chemiluminescence (CL) and oxygen-18 labeling. The same particles that are being tested in a 90 day inhalation study in rats (carbon black, amorphous and crystalline silica, ultrafine TiO<sub>2</sub>, asbestos) are added to AM in vitro in the presence of media containing luminol and a catalase inhibitor. Direct CL (thought to be due mostly to O<sub>2</sub>- production) is measured, a peroxidase is added to quantify H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> released from cells, then LDH release is measured as a cytotoxicity marker. Results to date suggest that rat AM respond differently than human AM in the following ways. 1) They have a lower (~2 fold) basal and particle-stimulated CL than human AM, 2) they produce less H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (either basal or particle-induced), and 3) they have a different spectrum of response to the same particles. For example, ultrafine TiO<sub>2</sub> is an active stimulant of rat but not human AM while the reverse is true of crocidolite asbestos. In both species, O<sub>2</sub>- CL is generally increased by particles while H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> release is often greatest in "unstimulated" cells. These preliminary results suggest that humans may be more susceptible than rats to inhaled particles because human AM have a more active oxidative burst than rat AM. (This abstract does not reflect E.P.A. policy).

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### **RISK ASSESSMENT OF INHALED PARTICLES: INTEGRATING TIME-ACTIVITY PATTERNS WITH RESPIRATORY TRACT PARTICLE DEPOSITION MODELS**

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Evaluating the risks associated with chronic exposure to toxic air pollutants due to inhalation and aerosol particles requires a quantitative estimate of the actual mass depositing in various regions of the respiratory tract. Although sophisticated mathematical models are available to predict particle deposition in the major regions of the respiratory tract, these models are generally limited to predicting deposition of particles of known size and specific ventilation rates. Risk assessment professionals who use these models must make simplifying assumptions about "typical" particle sizes and "average" ventilation rates (e.g. m<sup>3</sup>/day expressed as l/min flow rates). However, particle deposition in the lung changes dramatically at different ventilation rates, and average values do not necessarily predict average deposition fractions or regional deposition patterns. Our research examines the validity of making such simplifying assumptions.

Recently-available studies of human daily activity patterns which provide estimates of the fraction of time different U.S. subpopulations spend in activities with markedly different ventilation rates from resting to heavy exertion were used to estimate daily time-activity distributions. Activity-specific ventilation rates throughout a typical day for persons of specific age groups were then used instead of average daily ventilation rates to calculate aerosol deposition. Representative indoor and outdoor mass median aerosol diameters taken from published literature sources were used to define exposure concentrations throughout the day. Using the Yeh and Schum (1980) predictive aerosol deposition model, the daily deposition rates in the different regions of the respiratory tract are compared for the following individual exposure scenarios: indoor and outdoor workers in low and high activity occupations, and adult and child non-workers in a residential setting who are exposed to ambient air particles. The fractional contribution of different daily activity patterns to the total daily dose is presented, and the integrated daily dose is compared to predictions using "average" ventilation rates.

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## P2.12

### THE ORONASAL AIRWAYS: THE DEFINER AND IGNORED RESPIRATORY ZONE OF THE PM-10 REGULATORY CONVENTION.

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The particle penetration properties of the nasal and oral airways are the defining feature of the PM-10 convention. This definition implicitly assumes that only particles able to penetrate these airways can produce particle-associated health effects. Though not stated explicitly, this definition implies that no health effects resulting from exposure to particles are associated with these airways.

Some particles within the PM-10 envelope are deposited in the nasal and oral airways, as well as particles outside of the envelope (except for non-inhalable particles). Evidence for health effects of particles deposited in the oronasal (ON) airways is scant, primarily because most epidemiological and clinical studies have focused on the intrathoracic airways.

With improved techniques for detecting physiological changes and/or acute/chronic health effects in the ON airways, the role of these airways in providing data for regulation and control of particle exposure need further examination. Surveys of the incidence of nasal diseases indicate evidence for increasing occurrence of allergy, rhinitis and sinus infection in urban dwellers; these studies suggest that further investigation of the factors relating particle exposure to nasal disease are needed. There is evidence for variability of ON particle deposition efficiency whose relationship to health effects has not been studied.

## P2.13

### ESTABLISHING AN EPIDEMIOLOGICAL CONTEXT FOR THE ASSOCIATION OF MORTALITY WITH EXPOSURE TO PARTICULATE MATTER

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Recent epidemiologic studies consistently show an association of daily mortality with short-term elevations in ambient exposure to particulate matter (PM). An association of long-term mortality rates with PM exposure has also been observed. These findings simultaneously raise concern as to severity of the effect and skepticism as to its biologic plausibility. Though mortality studies should continue, they are not likely by themselves to eliminate all doubt. Instead, they should be accompanied by a vigorous program of experimental studies to investigate mechanisms by which PM-sulfur oxide (SO<sub>x</sub>) exposure might cause mortality, atmospheric chemistry studies to further determine the specific components of the ambient PM-SO<sub>x</sub> mixture and epidemiologic studies to determine whether PM-associated mortality occurs in a plausible, coherent biomedical context. In addition to mortality, epidemiologic studies should further address morbidity, and physiologic change in domestic and international settings. Important epidemiologic issues, requiring further investigation, include the following: apparent discrepancies between exposure-morbidity and exposure-mortality lag times; the strength with which lung function decrements predict mortality; the degree of irreversibility of childhood lung function decrements; and the international, inter-ethnic consistency of PM-related findings. If PM exposure indeed causes excess mortality, we would expect stable PM-related lung function decrements to occur in the same exposed populations. Current evidence strongly suggests that lung function decrements predict premature respiratory and cardiovascular mortality, even after adjustment for smoking. Thus, in our view, demonstration of stable PM-SO<sub>x</sub>-related decrements in lung function would greatly enhance the credibility of the mortality findings. Available evidence suggests that short-term changes in PM-SO<sub>x</sub> exposure produce short-term changes in lung function. Interim evidence from China also suggests that PM-SO<sub>x</sub> exposure retards lung function growth in children. However, it is not yet clear whether long-term PM-SO<sub>x</sub> exposure produces long-term stable decrements in lung function. This issue should be investigated until resolution is achieved.

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# **PARTICULATE ORGANIC MATTER (POM): IS IT THE CAUSATIVE AGENT FOR HUMAN MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY ASSOCIATED WITH PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION?**

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The epidemiological evidence for increased morbidity and mortality with increasing airborne particulate matter (PM) has raised two critical questions: (1) What is the causative agent (component of PM responsible for the toxicity)? and (2) What is the biological mechanism of action? One of the possible agents responsible for the human health effects, is the organic matter associated with PM. Respirable particles in urban air contain between 5 and 50% adsorbed particulate organic matter (POM), most of which is polycyclic organic matter (also referred to as POM). Furthermore, semivolatile organic matter associated with particulate matter (PM), either be adsorbed to the particles or present in the gaseous phase, depending on the ambient temperature and volatility of the component(s) results in even greater exposure to POM. Could POM play a causative role in the human morbidity and mortality associated with particulate air pollution? If so, by what mechanism(s) could POM induce both the acute and chronic effects associated with PM? Several lines of evidence suggest that POM is readily bioavailable from PM. Animal inhalation and intratracheal instillation studies of diesel particles vapor spiked with radiolabeled species (e.g. benzo(a)pyrene or nitropyrene) show the rapid appearance of radiolabel in the blood and urine. Similar studies with ambient urban PM have not been conducted. In a recent study of postal workers exposed to high concentrations of PM, POM metabolites were detected in the urine and DNA adducts in the blood, further suggesting the bioavailability of POM from ambient urban PM in humans.

Possible mechanisms by which this organic matter could induce cellular and systemic human effects include: (1) covalent binding of electrophilic components of POM with proteins, DNA and other macromolecules and initiating a cascade of molecular and cellular effects and (2) receptor mediated toxic or immunologic responses. We have conducted both in vitro and in vivo studies on the comparative potency of POM from ambient air and combustion related sources in reacting covalently with DNA to form DNA adducts and in inducing tumors in mice. Different sources of POM differ by over two orders of magnitude in their tumor initiating activity with coal derived POM (e.g. coke oven emissions) being among the most potent and vegetative combustion derived POM (e.g., woodsmoke and tobacco smoke) the least potent on a per  $\mu\text{g}$  organic matter basis.

To apportion and estimate the cancer risk of POM from ambient particles, receptor modeling, human exposure assessment and in vivo animal tumor studies were integrated in a large field study in Boise, Idaho in the winter of 1986-87 as part of the Integrated Air Cancer Project (IACP). Tumorigenicity and DNA adduct studies were conducted on source apportioned ambient POM from this airshed. Human exposure estimates and indoor:outdoor relationships were determined for the  $\text{PM}_{10}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , and POM among many other species measured in this study (e.g. semivolatile organic matter). The concentrations of fine particle mass measured indoors was nearly always lower than outdoor concentrations by a predictable factor and highly correlated with outdoor concentrations, indicating that infiltration of outdoor particles had a significant influence on indoor concentrations. The estimated human exposure to the POM in Boise during the winter when these samples were taken was  $11.6 \mu\text{g POM m}^{-3}$  with  $9.5 \mu\text{g POM/m}^3$  (82%) contributed by woodsmoke and  $2.1 \mu\text{g POM/m}^3$  (18%) by mobile sources. The estimated annual exposure concentration was  $4.7 \mu\text{g POM/m}^3$ . The winter daily dose of POM was estimated to be  $229 \mu\text{g/day}$  and the annual average dose rate was estimated to be  $94 \mu\text{g POM/day}$ .

The comparative tumorigenicity of ambient POM from Boise were compared to complex POM emissions from coke ovens, roofing coal tar, and cigarette smoke. These emissions have published cancer unit risk numbers that have been estimated using the human lung cancer data from epidemiological studies of humans exposed to these emissions. The cancer unit risk is expressed as the individual lifetime excess lung cancer risk from continuous exposure to 1  $\mu\text{g}$  POM per  $\text{m}^3$  inhaled air. The animal tumor potency and estimated human cancer risk from exposure to the POM from particles directly emitted from mobile sources (e.g., diesel and gasoline vehicles) is greater than that for POM from woodstove emissions. A similar difference was observed in the tumor potency of the Boise ambient sample dominated by woodsmoke (WSC: 78%RWC/11%MS) compared to one containing significantly more automotive emissions (WSMSC, 51%RWC/33%MS). The increase in motor vehicle-related content is sufficient to produce a significantly different (2.3 fold) tumor potency for these ambient air particulate samples. The tumor potency and comparative cancer risk of the POM from ambient air particles is in the same magnitude of automotive emissions.

This study presents the first direct quantitative estimate of the tumor potency and human cancer risk from the organic matter adsorbed to ambient aerosols in an urban airshed. This airshed contained POM essentially only from woodsmoke and motor vehicle emissions. The tumor potency of the organic matter is significantly higher for the sample with the greater motor vehicle emissions content. These data are consistent with the higher tumor potency measured for mobile source emissions when compared to emissions from woodstoves. Residential wood combustion accounted for 75% of the exposure to particle associated organics, but only 20% of the estimated cancer risk. The remaining 80% of the risk appears to be associated with the mobile source component and atmospheric transformation products from these source emissions.

This abstract does not necessarily reflect US EPA policy.

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## TEMPORAL VARIATION IN COMPONENTS OF PARTICLE MASS IN PHILADELPHIA

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Particle mass concentrations ( $PM_{2.5}$  and  $PM_{10}$ ), sulfate, and strong aerosol acidity were measured daily at two sites in Philadelphia, PA during the summer of 1992. Samples were collected for 24-h periods beginning at 9 am local time using 10  $L \cdot min^{-1}$  Harvard Impactors for mass, and the Harvard-EPA Annular Denuder System (HEADS) for sulfate and acidity. Coarse mass concentrations ( $2.5 < d_p < 10 \mu m$ ) were determined by subtraction of  $PM_{2.5}$  from  $PM_{10}$ . To allow improved temporal characterization during periods of elevated particle mass concentration, continuous or semi-continuous methods for mass, sulfate, and black carbon were also used at one site.

Temporal variation in 24-h concentrations of fine ( $d_p < 2.5 \mu m$ ) and coarse particle mass, water-soluble sulfate, and strong aerosol acidity are compared and contrasted for a 12-week period at the two sites. Fine mass is shown to dominate the daily and hourly temporal variation of  $PM_{10}$  concentrations. The contribution of sulfate and black carbon to the fine mass component is discussed, as is the possible effect on these relationships of the unusually clean summer of 1992 in the northeast US. The relative contribution of carbon and sulfate to the total fine particle mass concentration is contrasted for short-term (6 to 12 h) periods of high fine mass concentrations relative to similar periods of non-episodic concentrations, as well as for the 24 h duration samples.

These data will be useful in assessing health effects of particulate pollution in a clinical or laboratory setting by understanding how these parameters vary on a daily basis, and by giving some indication of which components of  $PM_{10}$  drive the short-term peak exposures observed in east coast urban areas.

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## P3.2

### SPATIAL VARIATION IN FINE AND COARSE PARTICLE MASS WITHIN METROPOLITAN PHILADELPHIA

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Particle mass concentrations ( $PM_{2.5}$  and  $PM_{10}$ ) were measured in metropolitan Philadelphia during the summer of 1992, as part of a large effort to characterize acid aerosol concentrations within urban environments. Sampling was performed simultaneously at seven sites located within metropolitan Philadelphia and at a rural site approximately 18 miles from the city center. Sites were selected based on their population density and on their relative locations within Philadelphia. particle sampling was performed on alternate days, with sampling conducted over 24-h periods beginning at 8 am. All samples were collected using  $10\text{ L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  Harvard Impactors.

In this paper, we examine and compare the spatial variation in fine ( $d_p < 2.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ ) and coarse ( $2.5 < d_p < 10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ ) particle mass concentrations. The effects of population density, traffic, location, wind direction, and other factors that may influence their spatial variation are discussed. Statistical analyses will be performed using Pearson correlation coefficients, as well as one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and univariate and multivariate regression procedures. This information will help epidemiologists understand how well, or poorly, measurements of fine, coarse, and  $PM_{10}$  aerosols collected from a single urban monitoring site are able to characterize particle concentrations within an urban area.

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## P3.3

### ABSTRACT

#### Diurnal Variations of Regional PM<sub>10</sub>, Nitric Acid, Nitrogen Oxides, Peroxyacetyl Nitrate, and Ozone During SJVAQS/AUSPEX Ozone Episodes

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SJVAQS/AUSPEX acquired PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> samples at ten sites in central California for five ozone episodes over a period of fourteen intensive sampling days. Four sample sets per day were acquired for five- and seven-hour durations during this period and analyzed for particulate mass; elements, water-soluble chloride, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, sodium, and potassium; and organic and elemental carbon. Gaseous ammonia, nitric acid, and sulfur dioxide gas concentrations were measured with absorbing filters. Continuous measurement of ozone, nitrogen oxides, and peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) were also acquired. Concentrations varied by sampling site, time of day, and ozone episode. Only one exceedance of the 24-hour PM<sub>10</sub> standard was observed during the study period, and this occurred at the Buttonwillow site. The highest concentrations of most chemical species were found at sites in the southern San Joaquin Valley.

Diurnal patterns of temperature, nitric acid, nitrogen oxides, PAN, and ozone followed similar peaks and valleys among all sites. Nitrate compounds tended more toward the volatilized nitrate and nitric acid phases during the daytime where temperatures reached over 25°C, and toward the particulate phases during the nighttime as temperatures decreased to less than 10°C. Crustal species such as aluminum, silicon, iron, calcium, and titanium were found in coarse particles at most sites. Substantial amounts of sodium and chloride were detected in the coarse fraction at the Point Reyes site. Organic carbon and sulfate were the most abundant species in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction. Elemental carbon concentrations were low at all sites.

## P3.4

### **EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT IN EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF THE HEALTH EFFECTS OF PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION: A COMPARISON OF DATA OBTAINED BY THE HOURLY BETA GAUGE TECHNIQUE AND THE DAILY REFERENCE METHOD FOR PM10**

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There is growing epidemiological evidence that particulate air pollution is associated with adverse health effects. We are investigating the effect of particulate air pollution on both mortality and morbidity in Denver, CO, from November 1988 through December 1992. The PM10 Beta Gauge Automated Particle Sampler (Wedding and Associates) has been used in Denver since 1988 and is approved by the U.S. E.P.A. as a designated method for sampling PM10. In Denver, PM10 data from the Reference Method High Volume Sampler has only been collected on an every 6-day basis whereas PM10 Beta Gauge data has been collected every day on an hourly basis. Before using the Beta Gauge data as the exposure variable in our epidemiological study, we compared the 24-hour mean of the hourly particulate concentrations as determined by the Beta Gauge with the Reference method PM10 data. The manufacturer has reported that the correlation coefficient between data obtained by the Beta Gauge technique and those from the PM10 Reference Method was 0.994. However, we found that data obtained by the two methods at a monitor in downtown Denver are not highly correlated (0.66). The intraclass correlation coefficient was 0.65, indicating that 35% of the variability in the exposure data is due to differences between the two methods. Regression analyses of the reference method data onto the Beta Gauge data determined that the intercept and the slope were significantly different from 0 and 1, respectively ( $p < 0.001$ ). Such discrepancies among methods used to assess particulate concentrations may contribute to inconsistencies among epidemiological studies.



## P3.5

### TEMPORAL AND SPATIAL VARIATIONS OF $PM_{10}$ AND ITS SOURCES IN THE SOUTH COAST AIR BASIN

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Statistical associations have been observed between human mortality and fine and sulfate particles. However, significant gaps in our knowledge exist in explaining the observed health effects based on results from controlled exposure studies. It is possible that the causative agent is a species that is correlated with particulate matter, but not measured by routine sampling of atmospheric aerosols. Free radicals, such as hydroxyl radicals, are responsible for the formation of fine and sulfate particles. They are also known to be damaging to lung tissue, as well as playing a role in the pathogenesis of a wide variety of disease states, including inflammation and cancer. These observations suggest that radicals may be at least partly responsible for adverse health effects, and that fine particle mass could serve as a marker for free radical dosage. Applying receptor models to time-series aerosol data to determine the temporal variations of source contributions may provide additional insight regarding mixtures of species that cause a disproportionate fraction of the health effects.

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## P3.6

### RESIDENTIAL EXPOSURES TO PARTICLE MASS AND PARTICLE AND VAPOR PHASE ACIDS ASSOCIATED WITH GAS STOVES AND KEROSENE HEATERS

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#### ABSTRACT

Unvented kerosene space heaters are an important source of fine particles, sulfate, particle and vapor phase acid, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide and carbon monoxide in the residential indoor environment. A pilot epidemiologic study has indicated that kerosene heater users are at higher risk for respiratory symptoms. As part of an epidemiologic study of the impact of emissions of kerosene heaters on the respiratory health of 1,000 infants and their mothers, a pilot study was conducted to assess the impact of kerosene heaters and gas stoves on residential concentrations of particle and vapor phase acids.

Indoor and outdoor samples were collected in a sample of 49 homes (33 with kerosene heaters, 10 with gas ranges and 6 with neither kerosene heater nor gas ranges) using the Harvard-EPA Annular Denuder System during a heating season. Samples were collected over periods ranging from eight to ten hours. The collected samples were analyzed for SO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, HONO, HNO<sub>3</sub>, aerosol strong acid, sulfate, nitrate and ammonium.

In homes with kerosene heaters SO<sub>2</sub>, sulfate, ammonium, and calculated fine particle mass concentrations were considerably higher than levels measured outdoors and in homes with gas stoves or no sources. NH<sub>3</sub> levels were higher indoors than outdoors for all source categories. HONO levels in homes with kerosene heaters and gas stoves were considerably higher (up to 55 ppb) than in homes without sources and outdoors. Indoor HONO levels in homes without sources were higher than outdoor levels. Sulfate levels in homes with kerosene heaters were well above outdoor levels, contributing an average of over 17 ug/m<sup>3</sup> to indoor levels with a high of 58.7 ug/m<sup>3</sup>. Particle mass concentrations were estimated to be substantially higher in the homes with kerosene heaters. Average RSP levels were approximately 50 ug/m<sup>3</sup> with some homes as high as 125 ug/m<sup>3</sup>. Particle acid were higher in homes with kerosene heaters and within the lower range of levels predicted from chamber studies.

## P3.7

### WHY CORRECT PM10 MEASUREMENTS FOR PRESSURE?

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The objective of airborne particulate sampling is to provide an estimate of airborne concentration, human exposure, and ultimately dose; the estimated dose is based on particulate mass per unit volume of air and the total volume of air inhaled over a given time.

Human response to changes in altitude have been extensively studied. For data associated with acclimatized individuals living in Denver, Colorado (1580 meters) the range of arterial blood gases have been measured to be  $PO_2$ : 65 - 75 mmHg and  $PCO_2$ : 34 - 38 mmHg.<sup>1</sup> Evidence further indicates that if  $PCO_2$  is kept below 40 mmHg, the alveolar  $PO_2$  can be reduced to approximately 50 mmHg before an increase in ventilation occurs.<sup>2</sup> Thus, no appreciable increase in respiration minute-volume would be expected to occur among acclimatized individuals at common U.S. urban elevations.

Given this physiological data it appears erroneous to assume that at elevations associated with any major U.S. metropolitan area, humans would receive different doses of PM10 over a 24 hour exposure given equal mass per unit volume concentrations (unadjusted for temperature and pressure). Because EPA exposure regulations for PM10 are expressed in units of mass per unit volume ( $ug/m^3$ ) they should not require temperature or elevation corrections for comparison of sampling results to standards.

In 40 CFR 50, Appendix J - Reference Method for the Determination of Particulate Matter as PM10 in the Atmosphere, Section 11 - Calculations, the instructions are to calculate the average flow rate over the sampling period and then correct to EPA reference conditions ( $Q_{std}$ ).

$$Q_{std} = Q_a \times (P_{av}/T_{av}) (T_{std}/P_{av})$$

where:

$Q_{std}$  = average flow rate at EPA reference conditions, std  $m^3/min$ ;

$Q_a$  = average flow rate at ambient conditions;

$P_{av}$  = average barometric pressure during the sampling period or average barometric pressure for the sampling site, kPa (or mmHg);

$T_{av}$  = average ambient temperature during the sampling period or seasonal average ambient temperature for sampling site, K;

$T_{std}$  = standard temperature, defined as 298K;

$P_{std}$  = standard pressure, defined as 101.3 kPa (or 760 mmHg).

Given this guidance, an example of PM<sub>10</sub> calculation showing the effects of EPA recommended pressure correction can be shown.

given: 1680 meters elevation (640 mmHg pressure);  
24 hour sampling;  
high-flow sample (40 cfm) and;  
PM<sub>10</sub> filter load of 225 mg.

Actual volume sampled	"Corrected" volume sampled	Actual PM <sub>10</sub> concentration	"Corrected" PM <sub>10</sub> concentration
1627 m <sup>3</sup>	1370 m <sup>3</sup>	138.3 ug/m <sup>3</sup>	164.2 ug/m <sup>3</sup>

As opposed to OSHA industrial standards (which use actual mass/volume concentration), the PM<sub>10</sub> standard differs in that it calls for correction to "EPA reference conditions" (i.e., 25 °C, 760 mmHg). This difference is important for two reasons: 1) Dose comparisons between differing elevations using EPA methods are invalid and; 2) High elevation locations are held to a stricter PM10 standard than low elevations.

#### References:

1. Occupational Respiratory Diseases (1986). James A. Merchant (ed.). NIOSH, U.S.D.H.H.S. (Pub. 86-102). pp. 187.
2. Respiratory Physiology - The Essentials, 3rd edition (1985). John B. West. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, MD. pp. 124.

## Episode Criteria for PM10: Is It Time to Revise?

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State implementation plans to attain ambient air quality standards are required to include emergency episode criteria and procedures to prevent "significant harm" to public health in the event of a substantial exceedance of an ambient air quality standard. For PM10, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has set the so-called "significant harm" level at  $600 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , and has suggested episode criteria levels of: stage 1 ("alert") -  $350 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ; stage 2 ("warning") -  $420 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ; and stage 3 ("emergency") -  $500 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , all 24-hour averages. If there is controversy about the degree of public health protection conferred by the standard, there should be little doubt that significant harm (including respiratory morbidity and possibly mortality) would occur in any population exposed to 24-hour PM10 concentrations exceeding even the stage 1 episode criteria. For instance, analysis of numerous epidemiologic studies suggests that a  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in PM10 corresponds to an increase in daily mortality of greater than 1%. Thus, if this relationship is causal, a 24-hour PM10 concentration at the stage 1 level compared with the current standard could entail an approximately 20% increase in daily mortality.

Furthermore, because PM10 monitoring has been based on collection of filters every sixth day for subsequent laboratory analysis, the concept of declaring episodes to protect public health based on quantitation of particle mass has been illusory. This presentation will suggest ways in which PM10 episode criteria could contribute to the protection of public health, such as requiring curtailment of outdoor aerobic sports by school children to reduce their exposure. The development of real-time particle monitoring instrumentation has made this feasible, provided, however, that regulatory agencies revisit the concept of significant harm and revise PM10 episode criteria to reflect the results of recent epidemiologic investigations. This presentation will also compare PM10 episode criteria with those suggested for other pollutants.

## P3.9

### REAL TIME MONITORING OF AIR BORNE PARTICULATES.

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From Thanksgiving 1992, through January 1993, air borne particulates smaller than 2.5 microns in diameter were measured at a fixed site in a residential neighborhood of the San Francisco Bay Area. The recording interval was 15 minutes using a Nephelometer manufactured by Radiance Research of Seattle, Washington. The data clearly shows that particulate concentrations increase most rapidly in the early evening and that the highest concentrations occur in the late evening, after 11 PM. This clearly suggests that the particulates are generated by non industrial and non automotive sources. The data when processed to generate average weekdays and average weekend days, show curves that are surprising similar. Again, this suggests that the particulates result from domestic processes, the most likely of which is Residential Wood Burning. This is consistent with the results other studies performed in the San Francisco Bay Area. This session will present the collected data.

Since indoor particulates levels approach 80% of the outdoor levels, it is clear that Residential Wood Burning causes dangerous levels of indoor air pollution in residential neighborhoods at times when people are in their homes subject to the health effects of particulate pollution.

## HUMAN EXPOSURE TO AIR POLLUTION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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Air pollution measurements made at three outdoor locations and four indoor sites in the Czech Republic during 1992 and 1993 provided data on ambient concentrations of sulfur dioxide, fine and coarse particle mass, elemental composition, polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH's) and aerosol acidity. These data were used in receptor models which revealed that home heating and power plants fueled by locally mined lignite coal were responsible for up to 80% of fine particle mass concentrations during winter inversion episodes. Emissions from mobile sources, incinerators and soil made up the balance of the inhalable particulates. PM-10 mass and sulfur dioxide concentrations measured at the central monitoring site in Teplice during the winter of 1993 were compared to smoke and sulfur dioxide concentrations in the London smog episode of December 5 through 9, 1952. That pollution episode was thought to have contributed to a substantial increase in mortality. The peak concentrations of sulfur dioxide and smoke (a measure of inhalable particulates) in London during that period was reported to be about 1800  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and 1600  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  respectively. During the 1993 winter pollution episode (January 29 to February 5) in the city of Teplice, located 90 km northwest of Prague, sulfur dioxide and PM-10 mass reached concentrations (12 hour averages) of 800 and 1100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  respectively. These values were about 50% of the pollution concentrations observed during the London 1952 episode. The meteorological conditions during the Czech episode were characterized by low wind speeds ( $< 0.5\text{km/hr}$ ), low temperature ( $2-5^\circ\text{C}$ ), and low visibility ( $< 100\text{m}$  visual range). The measurements made in Teplice are being used to assess the chemical features of the air pollution which are likely associated with impaired respiratory health status and neurobehavioral functions. In addition, receptor modeling results derived from these studies are being used by the Czech government to assist in prioritizing emission control strategies commensurate with available resources. Tables of indoor and outdoor concentrations of trace metals,  $\text{SO}_2$ , PAH's and aerosol acidity along with time series plots of PM-10 and fine particle mass measured in Northern Bohemia are incorporated into this poster. Scanning electron microscopy of individual particles will also be displayed to provide data on the chemical and physical properties of inhaled aerosols.

## P3.11

### PM<sub>10</sub>, FINE PARTICLE, AND NITRIC ACID CONCENTRATIONS IN CALIFORNIA DURING 1988-89

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The concentrations of acidic gases and particles were measured at ten sites throughout the state of California between October 6, 1988, and September 25, 1989, as part of the California Acid Deposition Monitoring Program (CADMP). Seven of these sampling sites represented urban areas (South Coast Air Basin, San Francisco Bay Area, Bakersfield, Santa Barbara, and Sacramento) and three represented forested areas (Sequoia, Yosemite, and Redwood National Parks). Twelve-hour daytime and nighttime measurements were taken on filters using standard PM<sub>10</sub> inlets and Teflon-coated fine-particle inlets. The denuder-difference method with absorbing nylon filters was used to obtain nitric acid concentrations. Other measured concentrations included particulate mass, sulfate, nitrate, chloride, ammonium; water-soluble sodium, magnesium, potassium, and calcium; and gaseous ammonia, sulfur dioxide, and nitrogen dioxide.

The twenty-four hour average federal PM<sub>10</sub> standard of 150  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  was exceeded at the Bakersfield, Central Los Angeles, and Azusa sites. The highest fine particle mass concentrations did not always correspond to the highest PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations at any of the sites. PM<sub>10</sub> mass concentrations were generally highest for nighttime samples. The maximum 12-hour nitric acid concentration of 37  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  was measured during summer at the Azusa site in downtown Los Angeles. Maximum daytime nitric acid concentrations were less than 3  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  at the rural sites.



COMMENTARY:

SUMMARY OF THE COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND  
HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY; IRVINE CALIFORNIA; Jan 24 &  
25th 1994

Revised 19th April 1994

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SUMMARY OF THE COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND  
HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY; IRVINE CALIFORNIA; Jan 24 &  
25th 1994

INTRODUCTION:

This colloquium, which attracted over 200 participants, heard 6 papers on epidemiology; 6 papers commenting on epidemiological methods; 5 papers on possible mechanisms of particle toxicity; and 9 papers on sources, levels and composition of particles less than 10 microns in size (PM10). In addition, there were 15 posters on epidemiology, 13 posters on mechanisms of lung injury, and 11 posters on air pollution characterization.

On the way to Orange County, I wrote down ten questions which I hoped would be answered by the colloquium. I propose to summarize the proceedings by examining what appear to me to be the best answers available.

1. Are the associations between PM10 and mortality in time series studies, robust?

The associations have been shown in 16 different locations on three continents. New data were presented at the colloquium from Chicago indicating a stronger association than in Philadelphia. This association was shown in four different model analyses. It is clear that differing ways of handling seasonality and weather effects can exert

a major influence on the outcome of these calculations; but in general similar conclusions are reached when different de-trending models are used. Although re-analyses of data from Steubenville were presented showing that a positive association was dependent on which population was included, and which aerometric data were used, these criticisms did not undermine the aggregate of the larger datasets. The relationships between exposure data and outcomes would be influenced by errors in the measured pollutants, and no account had been taken of these. Nevertheless, the associations demonstrated must, on the whole, be considered to be robust.

## 2. Can any common confounder be suggested?

Although in any individual study it is possible to suggest that SO<sub>2</sub>, or aerosol acidity, or ozone might also have influenced mortality, the locations in which the PM<sub>10</sub> relationship has been shown to hold contain some with no SO<sub>2</sub>, some with no acidity, and others with minimal ozone. No confounder common to all the studies can be suggested. The longitudinal 6 cities study indicates that the increased risk of mortality with higher levels of PM<sub>10</sub> is responsible for overall reduced survival (thus the time-series relationship cannot be dismissed as attributable to an acceleration of death by a short interval of 48 hours or so). New data from an analysis of an American Cancer Society dataset supports the conclusion from the 6 city study that

increased PM10 may be associated with an increased risk of lung cancer. In these studies, increased sulfate concentrations appear to be important; but as sulfates are a common component of PM10 in the summer, they cannot be regarded as a confounder. Nevertheless, it was clear that in individual studies, logistic regression methods were not easy to apply in separating the effects of different pollutants; or of pollutants in relation to weather patterns.

### 3. Why is cardiovascular mortality related to PM10?

Although speculative mechanisms can be proposed, there is currently no convincing explanation of this. The clarification of this relationship represents an important research priority.

### 4. Is there convincing evidence of other adverse effects of PM10?

PM10 levels have been shown to influence hospital admissions from acute respiratory disease; and in Toronto in the summer it was shown that although PM10 is significantly associated with such admissions, coarse particle mass (TSP minus PM10) was not. PM10 has also been shown to influence asthma emergency visits, and to be associated with increased medication use in asthmatics. It also affects peak flow rate performance in normal children. A detailed comparison of data in which other measurements of particulate pollution

were converted to presumed PM10 values, showed that other indices of adverse effects, such as increased respiratory symptoms, were consistent with these. In the Czech Republic, in regions where the mean monthly average PM10 values exceed 200 micrograms/m<sup>3</sup>, there is an increased prevalence of chronic bronchitis in children, and an increase in postneonatal mortality. In an adult nonsmoking cohort in California, recruited prospectively, PM10 levels were associated with an increased risk of development of airway obstructive disease.

The answer to this question must therefore be affirmative. Nevertheless, there were difficulties in interpreting some of the outcome data; it was suggested that RSV infections in children might have a cyclical pattern which would confound hospital admission data; and that the role of other pollutants such as SO<sub>2</sub> was difficult to exclude in single studies.

5. If consistency, temporality, and coherence criteria are met, is an understanding of mechanisms in this case necessary for a conclusion of causality?

Different people will make different judgements on this question. There was no time to explore the reasons for different answers (this would have required statements of inherent or acquired bias, for which there was no time). There seemed little doubt that most would have agreed that the present status of the findings indicated, beyond

question, that the reasons for the epidemiological data must be actively sought.

6. How does the composition of PM<sub>10</sub> particles vary in different places or at different times?

There was a great deal of information on this question. In summertime, the aerosol (both sulfate and nitrate) components were important; in other areas, the particle composition indicated that woodsmoke was important; in some places with high traffic density, a third of the fine particles were organic compounds; cigarette smoke had been identified as present in ambient fine particles, and leaf surface abrasion products could also be detected in some areas. Particles larger than one micron in size were generally formed by abrasion, and particles from 0.1 to 1.0 microns were usually formed by growth. We were reminded that 1 micron particles would last for 300 days in the atmosphere, and could travel thousands of miles; that 10 micron particles would last for one day, and might travel as far as seven hundred miles; and that 70 micron particles would only travel 7 miles. Dozens of hydrocarbons can be identified with fine particles, and up to 35% of volatile organic species could be lost during sampling. There seemed little doubt that there would be bound to be differences in composition of "PM<sub>10</sub>" in the same place in different seasons, and between different places.

7. Might the active particles be 1 micron or less in size?

There appear to be at least four reasons for suspecting that this is the case:

a) the higher penetration rates into small airways of smaller particles;

b) the fact that 1 micron particles would have similar indoor and outdoor concentrations; hence the cardiac invalid sitting indoors might get the same exposure as if he or she were outdoors. Also the intercorrelations between different monitors in the same region are higher for smaller particles, indicating that the population of a large area (such as greater Philadelphia) would be more uniformly exposed to smaller particles;

c) the observation of enhanced toxicity with very small particles (see paragraph 8 below).

d) the limited personal sampling data indicates that personal PM10 exposures were often 50% higher than outdoor and indoor concentrations.

Dosimetric comparisons of exercising humans and sedentary rats indicated that deposition of some sized particles within small airways might be greater in man than in small animals. Nonuniform ventilation of the lung (as is usual in cases of COPD) might lead to "overloading" of the well ventilated parts, with a consequently much enhanced effect.

8. What do we know of the effects of 10 micron and smaller

particles from animal experiments?

There are a significant number of experiments on this question. There are definite indications that the Fe+3 content may enhance toxicity; that some ultrafine particles (e.g. teflon fume PTFE) less than 50 nanometers in diameter are very toxic; that substances adsorbed onto particles could determine toxicity; and that combinations of particles (such as carbon + acrolein and ozone + acid aerosols) could have effects together, whereas individually they did not. Effects demonstrated included increased permeability and occasionally edema; increased airway responsiveness; changes in ciliary clearance; impaired macrophage function; and genotoxic effects. Comparisons between different dusts had shown that residual oil fly ash: Dusseldorf PM10 dust: Mount St. Helen's Ash: and saline, could be ranked in that order of most to least toxic. It was also the order of decreasing Fe+3 content. Small airway injury appeared to be an early marker of effect.

One observation that rats with induced pulmonary hypertension, were extremely sensitive to particle inhalation, was not discussed in detail. It might provide a clue to the increased cardiovascular mortality, but the point was not picked up. One investigator working in this field felt that we were at the "beginning of developing biological plausibility".

9. What future animal studies might throw light on the



mechanism of effects in humans?

Several observations highlighted the difficulties inherent in modelling human exposure and deposition of particles in animal studies. It would be easy to uncouple adsorbed organics from particles, and hence the particle delivered would not be representative of the actual circumstances. It would therefore be difficult to study actual PM10 exposure, in all its complexity, in controlled animal studies; though such experiments are clearly indicated. Phenomena such as increased permeability and airway responsiveness had already been demonstrated. Actual exposures of animals to concentrated urban particles should lead to a better definition of what the active components were. The relevance of animals with other defects, to the human experience of mortality, was unsure.

10. What future epidemiological studies would be useful?

It was clear that much more definition of exactly who was being impacted was needed. What were the likely exposures of those who constituted the excess deaths when PM10 levels were elevated? What had been the activity history of asthmatics made worse? The 24 city expansion of the 6 city study had shown similar conclusions to those drawn from the earlier data. Prospective studies on any scale are expensive and difficult to conduct, and a very long attention span is required of the funding agency. An ambitiously planned European study with 14 different

research centres in 10 countries has been launched. This will involve panels of children, and daily PM10 measurements will be made. The results of this study will be followed with great interest, as will the ongoing study of children's health in 12 Southern California communities.

There was a dinner at the meeting; but it had to be eaten so hurriedly if the posters were to be viewed that it could not be described as a banquet. Had it been a banquet, one could have identified some ghosts at it. Leonardo da Vinci who wrote "dust causes damage" alongside a drawing of the lung; Simeon-Denis Poisson, who dropped out of medical school and in 1837 wrote a book with the title: "Researches on the Probability of Opinions" which dealt with the distribution of infrequent events; David Hume, the Scots philosopher who pondered the problem of causal inferences from associations; and Sir Austen Bradford Hill who discussed causal inference in environmental epidemiology, and who warned us (with foresight?) that we could not demand knowledge of biological mechanisms. In the wings there would have been, on one side, a number of epidemiologists and biostatisticians who do not believe that air pollution causes significant adverse health effects, accompanied by those under contract to press the same view; and on the other, a growing number of investigators whose work supports a contrary judgement. Although it would have been tactless to point them out, Lave & Seskin would unquestionably have

been present. Perhaps it was fortunate that there wasn't a banquet.

**Title:** Session Chair's Summary - Human Mortality and Morbidity Studies

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## HUMAN MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY STUDIES

### Summary of Current Knowledge

Indices of particulate matter (PM) mass concentrations (TSP, PM<sub>10</sub>, FP, and SO<sub>4</sub>=) are generally intercorrelated, and associations between any one of them and the incidence of daily mortality, and/or indices of morbidity (e.g., hospital admissions, symptoms and medication usage in sensitive populations, deficits in pulmonary function, days of absence from work or school) are consistent with moderately elevated relative risks. These generally have been statistically significant for well-designed studies of suitably sized populations of adults and children.

The definition of well-designed studies has evolved in recent years, and the specific criteria appropriate to time-series analyses proposed at this colloquium by George Thurston warrant serious consideration. At the same time, we also need to keep in mind the fundamental biostatistical considerations laid out by Duncan Thomas during his presentation at the methodology session of this colloquium. Specifically, we should avoid model overspecification and focus our analyses on only a limited number of the most appropriate environmental variables.

It is interesting that most of the recent studies incorporating good design and analytical criteria are reporting results that show statistically significant associations between human health effects and PM exposures, and that these studies collectively show a coherence that generally meets Bates' criteria for causality. However, it is also apparent that, at this time, few if any, studies have the power to separate the relative influences of specific exposure factors from those of other measurable factors, or from exposure co-factors that may be causal but were not measured. There are many reasons for this unfortunate state-of-affairs. These include:

1) Lack of definitive knowledge of biological activity of most of the components of PM. The only component that has been confirmed to produce comparable responses in controlled human and animal exposure studies to those seen in epidemiological and field studies at concentrations near ambient levels is  $H^+$ . The causal or contributory roles of sulfate, nitrate and ammonium ions, fixed carbon, organic carbon, trace metals and crustal materials, if any, need to be determined.

2) Lack of knowledge about biological averaging times precludes making optimal decisions of exposure-related air sampling protocols.

3) Current monitoring network generated atmospheric concentration data provide only crude surrogates of exposure, due to uncertain and variable relations between them and personal exposure distributions in populations. Among the major deficiencies of present PM monitoring data are:

- a) limitation to analyses of mass concentrations only - in most cases - compositional analyses of samples (e.g., sulfates) are needed;
- b) limitation to 6th day schedules in most cases;
- c) lack of data on within-day temporal variation;
- d) limitation of number of monitoring stations in any region and their representativeness;
- e) lack of monitoring in most non-urban areas, and in non-exceedence areas.

As evidence accumulates that exposures to criteria pollutants such as PM, ozone, and lead at concentrations well below the current standards are associated with adverse health effects, the absence of monitoring data in non-exceedence areas becomes a critical limitation in our ability to assess health risks for such pollutants in the exceedingly large populations at risk. Future criteria document evaluations will be hampered by these gaps in PM data.

### Summary of Knowledge Gaps

There are important knowledge gaps in all the major component areas of investigation, i.e.: 1) selection and implementation of exposure assessment protocols; 2) selection and application of epidemiological models and methods; and 3) identifying mechanisms and temporal patterns of biological responses to PM exposures and combinations of PM and gaseous exposures. Some preliminary assessments of the extent and significance of the gaps in these areas follow:

1) Exposure Assessment Protocols: The most critical limitations to improvements in defining exposure-response relationships lie, in my view, in the much greater current limitations of the art of exposure assessment. Within the area of PM exposure assessment, there are a number of specific areas where further investigations are needed. These include:

- a) Retrospective Exposure Assessment. The needs in this area include improvements in models for constructing indices of personal exposure distributions based on: 1) network monitoring data; 2) geographic variations within regional airsheds; 3) indoor-outdoor ratios; 4) outdoor activity patterns; 5) residential histories; 6) in-transit exposures; etc.

- b) Prospective Measurements of Temporal Patterns of P M Exposures. The separation of the acute effects of PM from those of continuously monitored concentrations of gases such as ozone will not be successfully accomplished until the nature of the temporal variation of PM is better known. Ideally, continuous direct-reading PM monitors are needed at more of the network monitoring sites.
- c) Analyses of More PM Components. The analysis of PM filters for sulfate, nitrate and ammonium ions, combined with some site-specific calibration studies, would permit reasonable and adequate estimation of aerosol H<sup>+</sup> exposures, one of the most likely causal factors for PM-related health effects. In some cases, this is possible on archived network filters, as well as in prospective sample collection and analysis.

2) Epidemiological Models and Methods: Refinements in this area are clearly needed, and are discussed in greater detail in the summary prepared by Dr. Arden Pope.

3) Biological Response to PM Exposure: As advances occur in fundamental understandings of disease processes related to PM exposures, it should be possible to identify causal exposure factors and their biological averaging times, and this knowledge should be used to guide the selection and implementation of more relevant exposure assessment and health outcome selection protocols.



**PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND HUMAN HEALTH:  
ASSESSMENT OF THE EPIDEMIOLOGY**

Abbreviated title:

**PARTICULATE POLLUTION AND HEALTH**

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## **PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION AND HUMAN HEALTH: ASSESSMENT OF THE EPIDEMIOLOGY**

The number of epidemiologic studies that report health effects associated with particulate air pollution has grown dramatically since the late 1980's. The epidemiology sessions of the Colloquium on Particulate Air Pollution and Human Mortality and Morbidity, provided an excellent opportunity to review, discuss, debate, and evaluate much of this recent research. Because of the breadth of studies presented and opinions expressed, my assessment of these sessions will not attempt to review or summarize the presentations or discussions in detail. This assessment will briefly outline the evidence of human health effects of particulate air pollution from various types of epidemiologic studies. Based on the presentations and discussion at the colloquium, I will also briefly outline the various ways that this evidence is being interpreted and discuss the main questions that remain unanswered.

### **EPIDEMIOLOGIC OBSERVATIONS**

**Early episodic studies.** Early studies focused on severe air pollution episodes and observed large increases in cardio-pulmonary disease mortality associated with extremely elevated concentration of particulate and/or sulfur oxide air pollution. Although the biological mechanisms involved were poorly understood, there remained little disagreement that, at very high levels, ambient air pollution can contribute to increased respiratory illness and early cardio-pulmonary mortality.

**Population-based cross-sectional mortality studies.** Population-based (ecologic) cross-sectional studies evaluated the spatial distribution of mortality and air pollution. These

studies generally observed associations between mortality and fine or sulfate particulate pollution at levels common to contemporary cities in the developed world.

**Time-series studies.** Daily time-series studies evaluated the short-term temporal distribution of morbidity and mortality in many different cities with different climates and different levels of other pollutants. Recent studies have reported significant statistical associations between daily mortality and short-term changes in particulate air pollution concentrations. Consistent associations have been observed in studies conducted in over a dozen cities. For the studies that evaluated cause specific mortality, cardio-pulmonary disease mortality was more strongly associated with particulate air pollution than other causes. Time-series studies have also observed morbidity health effects of respirable particulate pollution including: 1) increased incidence of respiratory symptoms, 2) decreased lung function, 3) increased absenteeism from work or school or other restrictions in activity, and 4) increased hospitalizations and other health care visits for respiratory disease.

**Chronic exposure studies.** Chronic exposure studies that adjusted for individual differences in other risk factors, observed that long-term exposure to respirable particulate air pollution was associated with small deficits in lung function and higher risk of chronic respiratory disease and symptoms. Recent prospective cohort studies, that controlled for individual differences in age, sex, race, cigarette smoking, and other risk factors, observed increased cardio-pulmonary mortality associated with air pollution.

## **INTERPRETATION OF EVIDENCE**

Because the participants of the colloquium viewed the epidemiologic evidence with different objectives and from various perspectives, there was not unanimity of opinion with regards to how to appropriately interpret the epidemiologic data. Some participants were

critical of specific studies. Others suggested or implied that the consistency and coherency of the studies was being overstated. Nearly all of the participants recognized that the epidemiologic results would be more appreciable if the biological mechanisms involved were better understood. However, few participants seemed willing to attribute the observed associations between particulate air pollution and various measures of cardio-pulmonary disease strictly to chance.

**Causal interpretation.** Many colloquium participants recognized that the epidemiological studies provide substantial evidence implicating respirable particulate air pollution as a risk factor for cardio-pulmonary disease—even at levels common to many U.S. cities. For given health endpoints, reasonable consistency was observed across different researchers, study areas, and study designs. The studies also suggest a coherence or cascade of associations across various health endpoints. This consistency and coherency of epidemiologic results strengthens the implication that particulate air pollution likely plays a causal role in contributing to cardio-pulmonary disease.

**Methodological Bias.** It was suggested that observed air pollution health effects were due, at least in part, to systematic methodological or modeling bias. Such an explanation for these effects is lacking because of the wide range of research designs, analytical approaches, and statistical modeling techniques that have been used. Furthermore, many of the studies evaluated the sensitivity of their results and found them to be not very sensitive to different modeling approaches.

**Confounding.** The observed associations between human health and particulate air pollution from the epidemiological studies may be due to confounding of another uncontrolled risk factor that is correlated with both exposure and disease. For example, confounding may occur in an individual daily time-series study because of inadequate control

of seasonal factors, epidemics, other long wavelength trends, or weather variables. The time-series studies taken together, however, provide little evidence that the observed effects were due to confounding by weather or related factors. Almost all of the studies tried to control for weather factors. Similar pollution effects were estimated in warm and cold climates, dry and humid locations, and locations where particulate concentrations peak in the summer and areas with winter peaks.

Chronic exposure studies that evaluated spatial distributions of mortality and air pollution also observed associations between cardio-pulmonary health and particulate pollution. Important potential confounders in these studies such as unaccounted for differences in smoking, socio-economic, or demographic variables, are not potential confounders in daily time-series studies because such factors do not change daily in correlation with air pollution. Therefore, to be consistent with the overall epidemiologic results, a potential confounder must be associated across both time and space. Furthermore, it must be much more correlated with cardio-pulmonary disease than with other disease.

The most likely potential confounder, would be another pollutant or combination of pollutants that are highly correlated with fine particulates. Two potential confounding pollutants are sulfur dioxide and ozone. Similar particulate pollution effects, however, are observed in locations where ozone and sulfur dioxide levels are low and not correlated with particles.

## **RESEARCH NEEDS**

Future research should continue to refine the methodological approaches and modeling techniques used, to deal with potential confounders within specific studies, and to evaluate confounding by cross-study evaluations. Care must be taken to conduct well-designed

statistical modeling with well-defined hypotheses. For example in the time-series studies, temporal correlations between various pollutants and weather variables assures that including enough variables in the model will at least partially obscure possible pollution effects. Good statistical modeling requires an understanding of the implications of this multicollinearity, judicious selection of variables included in the models, and adequate sensitivity analysis. Even with good modeling, multicollinearity problems are endemic in these studies. Data from a single epidemiologic study cannot conclusively demonstrate that observed particulate air pollution effects are not due to confounding by weather variables. The most important evidence will continue to be the consistency and coherency of the pollution effects across many studies areas, various study designs, and different health endpoints.

Specific issues that need to be addressed by future research include: 1) an understanding of the biological mechanisms that are involved, 2) relationships between ambient air pollution as monitored at central monitoring sites with personal exposures to air pollution, 3) determination of an adequate index of particulate pollution for use in assessing health risks and for use in pollution control public policies, 4) understanding the relationships between and relative importance of chronic versus acute exposures, 5) defining susceptible populations, 6) refining estimates of the magnitude of the effect for different health endpoints, 7) understanding interactions between particulate air pollution and other risk factors including infectious agents, and 8) designing pollution control strategies and strategies for susceptible populations to mitigate the health consequences of pollution. Obviously epidemiologic studies alone cannot adequately address these issues. Continued contributions from toxicology, exposure assessment, and other disciplines will be required.

## CONCLUSION

Many questions regarding the biological mechanisms involved and the use of respirable particulate mass as the pollution index for complex mixtures of highly inter-correlated air pollutants remain unanswered and will require future research. The current epidemiologic evidence, however, can be reasonably interpreted as follows: Combustion-source particulate air pollution, at levels common to many urban and industrial areas in the U.S., contributes to human morbidity and mortality. Long-term, repeated exposure likely increases the risk of chronic respiratory disease. Short-term exposures can exacerbate existing cardiovascular and pulmonary disease and increase the number of persons in a population who become symptomatic, require hospitalization, or die. The composition and specific sources of combustion-source air pollution is probably important with respect to the toxicity of the pollution. However, for most urban and industrial areas, measures of respirable or fine particulate pollution serve as a good indices of combustion-source air pollution.

## **SESSION SUMMARY MECHANISMS OF PARTICULATE TOXICITY**

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### **Introduction**

The first two sessions of this meeting focused on studies methodologies related to the potential association between particulate matter concentration and human morbidity and mortality. Despite some of the striking findings from many epidemiologic studies demonstrating associations between very low levels of ambient particulates and excess mortality (both daily as well long-term) and morbidity (Dockery et al., 1994; Schwartz, 1994), nagging questions about the biological plausibility of these responses persist. Though one could press the argument that the establishment of biological plausibility is not necessary to prove causation, the need for biologically plausible explanations for the observations is important. At present the epidemiologic studies indicate that associations exist between health outcomes and ambient concentrations of particulate matter less than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (PM10). Furthermore, the concentrations at which effects are thought to occur are below the current PM10 standard. From a public health and regulatory perspective



it is extremely important to know what component(s) of PM<sub>10</sub> is the causative agent. Attempts to isolate a causative agent are wrapped up in questions of biological plausibility.

The third session addressed the issue of the biological plausibility of increased morbidity and morbidity. Presentations in this session can be broken down into three categories: dosimetric plausibility, toxicologic plausibility, and clinical plausibility. We will discuss the presentations in this order since it provides a logical way of approaching the overall issue of biologic plausibility. In each case we will consider general issues surrounding each category and integrate into the discussion the pertinent presentations.

## **DOSIMETRY**

Particle dosimetry in the respiratory tract is an excellent starting point for discussions of biological plausibility for it can address key issues from a perspective independent of precise particle composition. These issues include: (1) animal to human dosimetric extrapolation; (2) the influence of compromised lungs in altering regional lung dose; (3) the proper particle dose metric, i.e. particle mass vs. particle number vs. particle surface area; and (4) lung defense against inhaled particles.

The paper of Miller et al in this session raised questions relating to all four of these issues. Dr. Miller showed that there can be considerable differences in intrathoracic particle deposition and distribution between humans and non-primate animal species, and that these differences can arise both because of differences in intrathoracic deposition efficiency and because of differences in particle inhalability. Indeed Dr. Miller made a very strong argument that if coarse mode particles were responsible for effects in humans then the likelihood of seeing effects in rats at comparable concentrations would be small based entirely on considerations of the relatively small fraction of ambient particles that can penetrate into the breathing zone of the rat and subsequently into the intrathoracic airways. Dr. Miller also showed that when different ventilatory regions of the lung are compromised (such as in pre-existing COPD) with respect to their ventilatory capacity, those regions of the lung that are still healthy can receive a disproportionately high dose of particles placing those remaining healthy regions at even greater risk and thus further compromising the lung's

reserve capacity. With respect to questions of the actual dose metric, Dr. Miller's presentation illustrated some very important points. The common dose metric that is considered for particles is based on mass. However, if particle mass concentration is fixed particle number concentration increases as the inverse cube of particle diameter. Thus, Dr. Miller showed that a dose metric based on particle number could lead to very high fine and ultrafine particle numbers in alveoli when compared with the same particle mass in the coarse mode. Furthermore, when he compared predicted particle numbers in alveoli of rats to predicted particle numbers in alveoli of humans for the same mass exposure concentration he showed a much greater number of fine and ultrafine particles in human alveoli than in rat alveoli. This observation could account for the lack of effects observed in some animal toxicology experiments conducted at near real-world particle mass concentrations. Lastly, Dr. Miller postulated that the high numbers of fine and ultrafine particles delivered to alveoli might lead to a condition of "overload" of alveolar macrophages, and that this "overload" condition is based on particle number rather than mass as has been previously hypothesized by Morrow (1992).

Dr. Miller concluded overall that from a dosimetric perspective fine and ultrafine particles seemed much more likely than coarse mode particles to be a causal factor in particulate related human health effects. However, it should be pointed out that the lifetime of ultrafine particles in the atmosphere is very short, thus ultrafines do not constitute a large fraction of the ambient aerosol. Therefore, dosimetric arguments must be weighed in the context of the actual ambient concentrations of particles.

## **TOXICOLOGY**

There were four presentations that addressed biological plausibility from the mechanistic standpoint using animal toxicology studies. These presentations examined a wide range of particles and effects, though specifically focusing on acute effects. The types of particles discussed, and for which data were presented, included: sulfate and nitrate aerosols, sulfuric acid-coated ultrafine metallic particles, real-world particles with surface complexed iron ( $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ), road dust (uncharacterized), ultrafine teflon particles, and diesel particles.

Dr. Richard Schlesinger and Dr. Michael Kleinman discussed sulfate and nitrate aerosols. Dr. Kleinman presented data that showed that subchronic exposure of rats to concentrations of ammonium sulfate ( $70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), ammonium nitrate ( $350 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) and road dust ( $900 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) produced modest reductions in macrophage phagocytosis and respiratory burst; caused increased epithelial permeability; and produced histopathologic changes. At the concentrations studied the relative potency to produce effects was: nitrate > sulfate > road dust. Dr. Schlesinger pointed out that there are no good animal models for pulmonary function effects of sulfate and nitrate aerosols at near ambient conditions, but that sulfuric acid particles coated on ultrafine metal particles could produce drops in vital capacity in animals. Sulfuric acid aerosols can alter mucociliary clearance of inhaled particles, increase airway responsiveness to non-specific bronchoprovocating agents, and induce secretory cell hyperplasia. Dr. Schlesinger pointed out that generally acidic sulfates are the only particles causing consistent biological responses near ambient levels.

Dr. Gunther Oberdörster presented data in which rats were exposed to very low levels ( $4\text{--}8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) of an ultrafine ( $0.02 \mu\text{m}$ ) teflon aerosol for very brief periods (approximately 30 min). He found that this elicited a dramatic hemorrhagic pulmonary inflammatory response associated with a very rapid rises in BAL PMNs. Three of four animals exposed to freshly generated teflon aerosol died after 20 min of exposure. If one discounts the possibility of hydrogen fluoride (HF) or reactive radicals produced during the teflon aerosol generation process, then the essentially inert nature of teflon would lead one to the conclusion that ultrafine particles, in and of themselves, are capable of eliciting acute inflammatory responses. It could be speculated that, consistent with the work presented of Dr. Miller, that particle number or particle surface area is playing an important role in mediating toxicity.

This work contrasts, however, with that presented by Dr. Dan Costa in which three different types of real-world particles were instilled into rat lungs. What distinguished these particles among each other was the concentration of surface-complexed iron ( $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ) present on the particles. Dr. Costa and co-workers found that surface-complexed  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  induced inflammation in the rat lungs 96 hours post instillation as indicated by: increased PMNs eosinophils (EOS), and total protein in BAL. In addition airway reactivity to acetylcholine increased and cytotoxicity was demonstrated by an increase in LDH in the BAL. It was hypothesized that the surface-complexed iron generates hydroxyl radicals in the lung and that

these radicals elicit acute lung toxicity.

## CLINICAL

When considering the issue of biological plausibility, the ultimate issue is whether the putative health effects of low levels of particulate exposure are reasonable from a clinical perspective, are consistent with other observed effects of air pollutants on humans, and are consistent with toxicological investigations using animal models. The most perplexing observation is that of excess daily mortality associated with 24-hour average particulate concentrations as low as  $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . Although there is general agreement about the plausibility of a causal relationship between particulate exposure and the excess mortality observed in the London smog episodes where particulate concentrations reached as high as  $4000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , Dr. Mark Utell raised serious concerns about such a causal relationship existing down to concentrations as low as  $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . Since individuals at risk for mortality from particles would be expected to be indoors, the contribution of ambient particles would be further reduced recognizing that 100% penetration from the outside is highly unlikely. In his presentation, he pointed out that persons apparently at risk to the effects of particulate matter are the elderly and persons with severe obstructive lung disease. Their causes of death would most likely be due to pulmonary edema, acute respiratory infection, exacerbation of COPD or arrhythmias. Dr. Utell argues that toxicologic and controlled human exposure studies provide scant support for such phenomena occurring as a result of ambient particulate exposures as low as  $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . In individuals with COPD with an average  $\text{FEV}_1$  of approximately 50% predicted, the group reasonably assumed at highest risk from the epidemiologic data, no reductions in lung function occurred with two-hour exposures to approximately  $85 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$   $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  aerosols with intermittent exercise (Morrow et al., 1994). In a recent study, inhalation of sulfuric acid aerosols at  $1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  for three hours by healthy volunteers without lung disease followed by lavage 18 hours later did not cause an influx of inflammatory cells into the alveolar space nor evidence for alterations in antimicrobial defenses (Frampton et al., 1992). Dr. Utell contends that the epiphenomena associated with potential fatal clinical states as pulmonary edema with heart failure are so complex and variable that minor events such as a slight increase in pollution could not possibly account for the event of death. He does suggest, however, that more

studies of the effects of ultrafine particles or metal complexed particles are needed in light of the data from studies such as reported in this session by Dr. Oberdörster.

## COMMENT

The papers presented in this session provide a diverse perspective on the issue of biological plausibility. Several old and several new issues were raised. The issue of dose metric as it relates to a focus on a particular size cut for a standard, as well as for future toxicologic and clinical investigation is very important. It seems clear that coarse mode particles are not capable of producing loadings in the alveolar spaces that one could reasonably associate with potential toxicity. However, fine and ultrafine particles are capable, at low mass concentrations, of leading to significant particle numbers being deposited in alveolar spaces. If one postulates a mechanism by which the lung responds to particle number, then particle number, and consequently fine and ultrafine particles, may be very important. This is made even more compelling when one considers that since most exposure to air pollutants occurs indoors, then there must be significant penetration of particulates indoors. It seems only reasonable that the fine fraction, or possibly some ultrafine fraction, could achieve such a penetration.

The animal toxicologic studies provided some new insights. The investigation of surface-complexed  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  presents one of the very few studies with particulates that is grounded on a mechanistic base. This research presents a very compelling model linking a specific component of real-world particulate matter with frank inflammatory effects in animals. It is important that this work be pursued in a setting whereby animals are exposed by inhalation as opposed to instillation. A key question that needs to be pursued is the question of exposure of populations to particulate matter with surface-complexed  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ . If this, or other transition metals, is the causative agent, then it should be present in all of the urban areas that show an association between particulate matter, and morbidity and mortality. The geographic independence of the epidemiological findings would suggest that transition metal concentrations should be tightly linked to particulate mass concentrations.

The study of the effects of short-term exposure to an ultrafine teflon aerosol provides powerful evidence of the potential for particle number or surface area playing a role in particle-mediated toxicity. Because of the dramatic effects observed, including death of otherwise healthy animals, it is essential that this research be replicated with absolute assurance that animals are not

being exposed to HF or other radicals, and are just being exposed to teflon particles.

Animal studies with sulfate and nitrate aerosols have generally shown very unremarkable effects at ambient or near ambient concentrations. However, some caution has to be used before dismissing these aerosols out of hand. First, sulfuric acid aerosols do alter mucociliary clearance, increase airway responsiveness, and induce secretory cell hyperplasia. Furthermore, acid aerosols have been demonstrated to have immunosuppressive effects via alterations in macrophage activity. Although these effects are not dramatic, it is not altogether clear what effects might occur in appropriate animal models of human disease such as COPD and pulmonary hypertension. For example, seemingly trivial effects of sulfuric acid aerosol on mucociliary clearance in normal humans could have significant impacts in compromised lungs where mucus inspissation and plugging of small airways occurs. Further reason to not dismiss acidic aerosols is provided by the poster presentation of Lippmann et al at this colloquium demonstrating that by analyzing London mortality data by season, the association with particulate matter disappears leaving an association with aerosol acidity.

Finally, our tools for studying lung injury have become increasingly sophisticated during the past decade. Novel approaches provide opportunities to identify mechanisms of injury including characterization of the role of mediators, the identification of new neurotransmitters, and an understanding of the subtleties of immune suppression. Such techniques could uncover mechanisms by which particles alone or complexed with metals could provoke pulmonary edema, arrhythmia, or exacerbation of severe obstructive airways disease. Clearly the development of an animal model of chronic lung disease could provide important insights.

Because of the low concentrations of particulate matter now associated with excess morbidity and mortality a concerted effort must be made to unravel the toxicological processes potentially responsible for these effects. These efforts should be conducted in tandem with de novo epidemiologic studies and reanalyses of old studies. Epidemiologic investigations need to proceed to both ensure that potential confounders have not been overlooked and to potentially narrow the field of toxicologic investigation. The latter can be accomplished by study designs contrasting population responses to different ambient particle composition. Studies of biological plausibility and mechanisms should utilize both animal models and human clinical studies, and in vivo and in vitro test methods. Coordination of approaches among different laboratories will be vital to ensure the generation of a data base that is coherent and usable for the development of reasonable mechanistic models. The ultimate question of the causal relation between very low level particulate concentration and excess daily mortality based on clinical plausibility is serious.

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## COLLOQUIUM ON PARTICULATE AIR POLLUTION

### EPIDEMIOLOGICAL AND BIOMEDICAL INTERPRETATIONS OF PM10 RESULTS:

#### ISSUES AND CONTROVERSIES

##### Session Summary

Michael D. Lebowitz, Ph.D., Co-chair

Other panelists: Drs. J. Whitternberger (co-chair), C. Shy, S. Colome,  
D. Thomas, K. Pinkerton, H. Margolis; D. Westerdahl, co-organizer.

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##### Objective:

To evaluate the evidence for a relationship of ambient particulate air pollution (or constituents thereof) with mortality and morbidity by integrating findings of epidemiological investigations, biostatistical analyses, and patho-physiological studies presented in Colloquium sessions and reported in the literature. As part of this approach, to determine if the relationships are consistent between analytical methods, and consistent with patho-physiological evaluations.



## Overall Summary:

The primary issues and controversies resulting from the presentations and discussions were in relation to i) causation, and ii) biological plausibility. It was debated whether causation needed to involve biological plausibility, or just consistencies and contrasts of associations in different populations (and times) on study replications. There was no disagreement that recent findings generated hypotheses, and there was agreement that further studies were needed using appropriate exposure and response measures.

There was some discussion vis-a-vis "causality" as to whether the specific statistical methods used were an issue, and if they could promote similar results in exposure-effect relationships when replicated. It was agreed that there had to be statistical analyses replicated using the same data sets as used in the analyses or investigations presented in other sessions and/or published in the literature. The nature of ecological analyses, and their fallacies/biases, was discussed. Comparisons were made between these methods and those evaluating individuals in communities, between times, and/or analytes. The major statistical issues addressed included appropriate use of the methods, the nature and number of variables and of cases, the nature of temporal trends. Independence and colinearity of observations and confounding need to be addressed, as should testing of assumptions, heterogeneity, and "sensitivity"; careful reasoning was stressed. A further linkage between plausibility and causality was discussed: it was stated that both could be interpreted strongly if an episode of high air pollution were associated with a number of deaths and was followed by a deficit (as in many epidemics). It was also stated that such associations don't necessarily reflect long-term mortality or mortality trends, as sometimes attributed.

The biological plausibility of significant exposure-response relationships presented and published was discussed as issues of appropriate and accurate exposure measurements as well as the patho-physiological nature of the results. Interpretations too often depend on data from stationary monitors when individuals' exposures are not reflected by such measurements. Further, the size and species of the particulate should be critical aspects of the exposure measurements, especially as different particles produce different physiological and pathological responses.

It was pointed out that immuno-histochemical techniques have shown effects in different aged animals (primarily starting early in life), though most of the effects are functional and not anatomical. It was pointed out that different species have different temporal effects post retention (and there can be species differences in the temporal effects). As with gases, and in conjunction with the different reactive species of both, one has to focus on the effects that occur in the different regions of the lung and the outcomes therefrom. This discussion was illustrated by examples of effects of smoking, a highly reactive mix of gas and small particles. This discussion lead to the comparison of long-term high-exposure tobacco smoke effects on morbidity and mortality compared to the extrapolated effects related to small short-term increases in ambient PM10, which would imply that the latter extrapolations are much too large.

Further, one has to look more closely at effects in those (especially the elderly) with existing cardio-pulmonary diseases; it would be likely that some small shortening of life (or increased morbidity and disability) could occur under the circumstances described in earlier presentations of major associations.

It was concluded that one needed epidemiological studies that utilized appropriate monitors (re: simplicity, reliability, and quality of data) for personal exposure assessments within designed studies that focused on the dose-response nature of the PM effects. These new study designs should have the ability to explore non-linear threshold models, especially of morbidity.

**Sources, Atmospheric Levels and Characterization of Airborne  
Particulate Matter**

Comments presented at the Symposium on Particulate Air Pollution--  
Associations with and Mechanisms for Human Mortality and Morbidity,  
January 1994, Irvine CA

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# Sources, Atmospheric Levels and Characterization of Airborne Particulate Matter

## Introduction

A knowledge of the physical and chemical character of particulate air pollutants is necessary to the design of laboratory-based toxicological studies and field-based epidemiological studies of air pollution health effects. The purpose of the present working paper is to outline areas in which advances in source emissions measurements, atmospheric measurements, and atmospheric models could be sought that would improve our ability to inform health scientists of the character and origin of pollutant loadings in the atmosphere.

## Emissions from Sources

A complete characterization of the particulate matter emissions from sources must begin with source sampling methods that achieve an accurate separation between gas-phase and particle-phase emissions from each source. Dilution source sampling systems are presently available that seek to cool hot exhaust gases to ambient temperature before sampling, thus causing those materials that are in the vapor phase at high temperatures (but that will enter the particle phase upon cooling in the plume downwind of the source) to in fact enter the particle phase within the sampler before sample collection. Additional research is needed to avoid sampling artifacts during source sample collection, perhaps through the use of diffusion denuder systems that preserve the gas/particle phase separation at the point where the source samples are collected on filters at the end of a dilution tunnel.

Conventional source sampling systems presently exist that can be used to measure the size distribution of particulate matter emissions in size ranges above about 1  $\mu\text{m}$  particle diameter through collection in a sequence of cyclone separators. Greater size resolution for particles smaller than 1  $\mu\text{m}$  is needed, both to study the likely transport properties of very small particles (e.g. in support of lung deposition calculations), to support air quality modeling studies of the condensational growth of secondary aerosols (e.g. sulfates and nitrates) onto the primary particles that are emitted directly from sources, and to answer questions raised at the present conference about the possible importance of ultrafine aerosols. Such high resolution size distribution measurements

can be made by sampling from dilution tunnels using electrical aerosol analyzers or cascade impactors.

The bulk chemical composition of the particulate matter emissions has been measured from many sources, but generally only over a broad range of particle sizes (e.g. all particles < 10  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter; all particles < 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter). If cascade impactors were used to measure the size distribution of the submicron-size primary particles emitted at sources, then the impactor samples could be analyzed to determine the details of particle chemical composition as a function of particle size.

Comprehensive emission inventories have been developed in many parts of the United States for use in summarizing the relative importance of various sources of  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . Similar emission inventories for smaller particle sizes would be useful in identifying the relative importance of the various sources of easily respirable fine particles and even ultrafine particles.

Analyses of source samples and atmospheric samples both show that there are hundreds of organic plus inorganic compounds emitted as particulate matter from air pollution sources. Indeed, there are far more compounds than there are major types of air pollution sources (e.g. automobiles, boilers, etc.). Rather than conducting toxicological studies on a nearly endless number of pure compounds, it may be both more efficient and effective to subject whole source effluents from real sources to toxicological examination. This has been done with diesel exhausts; the approach could be generalized to examine the remaining sources.

#### Characterization of Atmospheric Samples

The status and needs for characterization of atmospheric samples generally parallel those just discussed for source samples. The goal should be to seek low-artifact sampling methods that achieve a correct separation between the gas and particle phases, and that provide information on the details of the size distribution and chemical composition of the submicron fraction of the ambient particle complex. Diffusion denuder methods for low artifact ambient sampling exist within the research community. These methods should be adapted to the needs of the governmental routine air monitoring networks. Likewise, cascade impactor systems are in the use within the research community for particle size and composition determination, but the large routinely-collected ambient data sets based on impactor measurements that would be needed to

characterize entire airsheds generally do not yet exist. Opportunities exist to greatly improve the particle size and chemical resolution of governmental routine air monitoring networks.

Secondary aerosol sulfates are often formed by heterogeneous chemical reaction within liquid water droplets in the atmosphere. While large amounts of data on water-soluble pollutants exist, surprisingly little information is available on the concentration of aerosol phase water itself. Measurement methods should be sought that directly measure the water content of airborne particles such that the formation and transport of water-soluble pollutants can be better understood.

Research opportunities also exist at the interface between aerosol characterization studies and health effects studies. Air pollutant levels in the United States generally are low enough that the high particle concentrations often needed for accelerated toxicological studies cannot be obtained by directly exposing test animals to ambient air. Instead, idealized (and possibly over-simplified) artificial aerosols are used. From work discussed at the present conference, it appears that aerosol concentrators can be built that could be used to increase real atmospheric particle concentrations to levels that would be useful in laboratory toxicology studies. Application of such methods should be pursued in the near future.

Finally, epidemiological studies have been conducted that seek associations between airborne particle mass concentrations or sulfate concentrations and various health indicators. The largest contributor to the fine particle burden in cities is usually carbonaceous aerosol, but carbon particle concentrations are seldom measured directly. An attempt should be made to co-ordinate ambient particle characterization studies with epidemiological studies such that an epidemiological assessment of the hazard due to exposure to airborne carbonaceous particles can be achieved.

#### Connecting Emissions to Air Quality

Computer-based air quality models provide an analytical tool for connecting knowledge of air pollutant source characteristics to predicted ambient concentrations and population exposures. Several needs can be identified for research into air quality modeling methods for particulate matter.

At present, model components have been developed that can track the transport of particles from sources, the production of low vapor pressure materials by chemical reaction in the atmosphere, growth of airborne particles by condensation and coagulation, and the dry deposition of particles at the earth's surface. Many investigators are presently in the process of integrating descriptions of each of these steps into complete models for the effect of particle-phase plus gas-phase pollutant emissions on particulate air quality. Such complete models seek to be able to predict the size distribution and chemical composition of the ambient particle complex directly from data on meteorological conditions and source emissions. There is a need for better input data for these models, particularly better information on the size and composition of the initial particle emissions at the source, and a need to support thorough testing of model predictions against atmospheric aerosol data sets.

Many of the worst air pollutant-related health disasters have occurred when high levels of SO<sub>2</sub> and particulate matter accumulated in fogs. Development and testing of detailed fog chemistry models designed to help illuminate the effect of emissions sources on the composition of fog droplets should be encouraged.

Specialized air quality models designed to assess source contributions to toxic and hazardous particulate organic compounds should be developed. A key component of such a model development effort is the acquisition of comparable data on both source emissions and ambient concentrations of the target compounds sufficient to thoroughly test air quality model performance.

Most of the air quality models presently being developed that contain a highly accurate description of particle size and chemical composition are episodic models designed to examine high concentration events on an hour-by-hour basis over the period of a few days. Models suited to predicting long-term average effects of emissions on particulate air quality for secondary aerosol species over periods of years or longer should be developed as they will be needed to study issues related to chronic health effects.



**AEROSOL EXPOSURE, PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY -  
SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE**

Comments presented at the Symposium on Particulate Air Pollution -  
Associations with, and Mechanisms for, Human Mortality and  
Morbidity, January 1994, Irvine, CA

by

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Abbreviated Title: AEROSOL EXPOSURE, PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

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## AEROSOL EXPOSURE, PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

### SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE

Exposure. In several areas where comparisons have been made, including the South Coast Air Basin (Los Angeles) and Philadelphia (summer of 1992), fine mass, and especially sulfate and nitrate, appear to dominate the variability in PM<sub>10</sub> (Particulate Matter with diameter < 10 $\mu$ m). This might also be true for TSP (Total Suspended Particulate Matter). Fine particulate matter, and especially the sulfate component, tends to be regional in nature; therefore, one sampler may give a fine-particle concentration measurement which is representative of an entire metropolitan area. Fine particulate matter effectively penetrates into homes so indoor exposure to outdoor particles will be related to the outdoor particle concentration.

Therefore, even though we would not expect one sampler to give a representative measure of coarse particles for a metropolitan area, TSP or PM<sub>10</sub> may, as well as PM<sub>2.5</sub>, provide a measurement of the variability of fine particle mass that could be used as a surrogate for population exposure to fine mass. This approximation should be best for cities where sulfate is the major PM component. It may not hold for very large and diverse metropolitan centers such as Los Angeles or New York, or for cities with high ammonium nitrate, especially if the nitrate concentration pattern is

determined by large localized ammonia sources.

Human observer visibility data, available for most major airports for many years, especially if corrected for relative humidity effects, may provide a useful indicator of fine PM pollution. When gravimetric measurements are available only for every other or every sixth day, visibility measurements may be especially useful for estimating missing day values.

In some cities the particulate matter pollution is very episodic, e.g., the pollution levels are sometimes very high and sometimes very low. Such cities are useful for measuring acute effects but a comparison of such cities for chronic effects may be more difficult. However, there are other cities in which the pollution is generally high or generally low. In such cities it is difficult to observe acute effects but a comparison of such cities may be useful for determining chronic effects.

#### SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE GAPS

Exposure. Current correlations of health endpoints and aerosol exposures actually use ambient (outdoor) PM concentrations, not human exposure. Some important questions follow: 1. How can we model human exposure from ambient concentration levels and activity patterns? 2. What is the composition and concentration of particulate matter in micro-environments; for example, in homes, offices, hospitals, nursing homes, cars, subways, etc.? 3. What

are the sources of particulate matter indoors; how should these sources be included in exposure models and how do the health effects of aerosol generated indoors differ from the health effects of ambient aerosol? 4. Even if we could model human exposure, how would it be used in epidemiological correlations? 5. What measure would be most useful for a species such as acidity which, while not uniform across a metropolitan area, does have a consistent pattern? 6. How can we handle species such as the coarse component of PM<sub>10</sub> which is not uniform across the metropolitan area and probably does not have a consistent pattern?

It would be desirable to have more specific information on particulate matter exposure in order to identify components or sources with higher or lower correlations to health effects. For example, measurements of fine and coarse particles separately, or of specific components such as iron or acidity suspected of biological activity would be useful. It might also be possible to use source apportionment techniques to obtain time series of the mass of particulate matter contributed by specific sources. Then this time series could be correlated with time series of mortality or morbidity to determine if any specific sources could be associated with or excluded from health effects.

Weather is an important confounder in epidemiological correlations; however, weather is also an important factor in influencing or even causing pollution levels. It is unclear how to best control for the direct effects of weather on health without

also removing pollution concentration variations which are influenced or caused by weather.

Measurement. Satisfactory techniques are available for measuring sulfate ion, ammonium ion, metals and elemental carbon on a 24-hour basis. However, there are still difficulties in measuring such species as hydrogen ion or acidity, ammonium nitrate, semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOC), and particle-bound water. Denuder techniques have been developed to reduce or correct for neutralization of hydrogen ion or evaporation of ammonium nitrate or SVOCs during sampling but losses during handling, storage, and processing may still be a problem.

Species such as ammonium nitrate, semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOC), and particle-bound water, in addition to being difficult to measure because the condensed phase is in equilibrium with gas phase species, cause an inherent uncertainty in mass measurements, especially those that require heating a collected sample. Improved measurement techniques are needed for these species. For all species, simpler, cheaper techniques are needed including continuous or semi-continuous techniques which would provide time resolution of an hour or less, as can be done for many gas phase pollutants.

It is possible that water-soluble gases, which would be removed by deposition to wet surfaces in the upper respiratory system during inhalation, could dissolve in particle-bound water

and be carried with the particles into the deep lung. Water-soluble gases in polluted air include oxidants such as  $O_3$ ,  $H_2O_2$ , and organic peroxides; acid gases such as  $SO_2$ ,  $HCl$ ,  $HNO_3$ ,  $HONO$ , and formic acid; and polar organic species such as formaldehyde. Some of these species may have biological effects, but current techniques do not measure particle-bound water or the species dissolved in it.

Cut-Point. Particulate matter is naturally divided into fine particles (nuclei mode plus accumulation mode) and coarse mode particles, based on different sources and different chemical composition. In determining exposure to particulate matter for use in epidemiological and other research studies, it would be desirable to collect fine and coarse particles separately. Measurements of particle size distribution indicate a concentration minimum between the fine and coarse modes in the size range between 1.0 and  $2.5\mu m$ . However, it is not clear whether  $1.0\mu m$ ,  $2.5\mu m$ , or somewhere in between would be the best cut-point to separate fine and coarse particles.

If a significant amount of coarse mode mass is found in the 1.0 to  $2.5\mu m$  size range,  $PM_{2.5}$  mass measurements may not be an accurate measurement of fine particle mass. It is not known how much coarse particulate matter really exists in the atmosphere with diameters between 1.0 and  $2.5\mu m$ . The material observed between 1.0- $2.5\mu m$  could be an artifact due to particle bounce in impactors, a lack of sharpness of the particle size separation by impactors or

cyclones, or break up of aggregates of smaller particles in the sampler inlet. However, material observed in this size range could be real. The efficiency of many particle control devices decreases with particle size, allowing much greater emissions of the small-size tail of the coarse mode. Particles in this size range (1.0-2.5 $\mu$ m) also have a much longer atmospheric lifetime than larger particles. Both of these factors could lead to more particles in this size range in ambient air than would be predicted from the size distribution of freshly-generated, uncontrolled coarse mode aerosols.

The potential health effects of particles in this size range are important since the efficiency of lung deposition is high in this size range and a significant fraction of the number and surface area of coarse mode particles will be contributed by particles in this size range. Coagulation and condensation processes rarely grow fine particles above 1.0 $\mu$ m. However, evaporation of fog droplets, formed in highly polluted air, can form fine particles with a small amount of the accumulation mode mass above 1.0 $\mu$ m. Therefore, further analysis is needed before the best cut point for separating fine and coarse particle mass can be determined.

These comments have been reviewed in accordance with the United States Environmental Protection Agency's peer and administrative review policy and approved for publication.

## **PM10 RESEARCH NEEDS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The Colloquium on Particulate Air Pollution and Human Mortality and Morbidity held in Irvine, CA, January, 1994, had scientific sessions on I. Epidemiologic Findings; II. Epidemiologic Methods; III. Mechanisms of Toxicity; and IV. Sources, Levels and Characterization of PM<sub>10</sub>. After each platform session the scientists in attendance contributed written suggestions for additional needed research. The suggestions, totaling over 100, are condensed and summarized here. These suggestions demonstrate a perceived need for additional data to supplement existing studies, plus the need for a considerable amount of additional basic research in many areas relating to the issue of the effects of PM<sub>10</sub> on human health.

## INTRODUCTION

On January 24 & 25, 1994, over 200 scientists participated in a Colloquium on Particulate Air Pollution and Human Mortality and Morbidity. The specialties of these participants included epidemiology, biostatistics, pulmonary medicine, occupational medicine, toxicology, physiology, cell biology, risk assessment, receptor modeling, source modeling, atmospheric chemistry, aerosol science, chemical engineering, and public health. The participants offered over 100 written suggestions for additional research related to each of the following platform sessions: I. Epidemiological Findings; II. Epidemiologic Methods; III. Mechanisms of Toxicity; and IV. Sources, Levels and Characterization of PM<sub>10</sub>. Many of the suggestions were similar enough to be combined, and all of them have been edited or paraphrased for the sake of consistency and clarity. These suggestions for research were not officially discussed at the Colloquium due to time constraints. In addition, they do not carry the imprimatur of any funding agency or regulatory agency. Rather, they are a encapsulation of the perceived needs for research as expressed by a large and diverse group of scientists who are actively involved with many aspects of the problem of understanding and dealing with the impact of particulate air pollution on the health of human populations. The suggestions are organized below in accordance with the Colloquium sessions. The most frequently mentioned suggestions are listed first, for emphasis.

## EPIDEMIOLOGIC FINDINGS (SESSION I)

The session included papers that both linked, and failed to link, human mortality and morbidity to ambient particulate air pollution. The identified research needs associated with this session were both numerous and varied.

1. Descriptions of environmental air pollutants must be improved in the following ways: they must include more sites and be more frequent; they must include more chemical species and the levels of acidity; they must include more information on particle size distributions; they must provide information on metastable (transient) components; and they must be more long-term.
2. Human exposures must be better described for indoor environments such as nursing homes, hospitals and other areas where the most susceptible individuals are likely to be found. These exposures need more complete specification with respect to the physical sizes and chemical makeup of air contaminants, as well as the exposure durations and ventilation rates of members of the exposed populations.
3. Exposure and dose estimates must be improved per-se for studied individuals as well as for studied populations. Sophisticated inhalation dosimetry models should be incorporated into the epidemiological investigations so that the deposition efficiencies and regional depositions of various particles, gases, and vapors are included.
4. Study sites should be expanded to include cities that are diverse enough in their main air pollutants to allow scientists to clearly identify specific potentially-active agents.

5. Special sensitive populations that deserve additional study emphasis include the elderly, persons with advanced COPD (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease), young children, asthmatics, users of medications that might modify responses to air pollutants, individuals with significant cardiovascular disease, and those who live near monitoring stations (where exposure is more precisely known). Those specific segments of the population actually dying from low levels of particulate air pollutants still must be identified.
6. More study is needed on the effects of weather-related variables, especially in cities or rural areas that have very low levels of anthropogenic air pollution. This could include areas that have been successful in air pollution mitigation efforts.
7. Additional longitudinal studies are needed. Especially important are those that include better exposure assessments, including personal exposures.
8. Case-control studies are needed that compare those people dying on low-pollution days and on high-pollution days.
9. Occupationally-exposed populations, working in environments in which concentrations of specific particulate air pollutants are elevated, should be studied and analyzed for information that might help to understand environmental exposures.
10. A centralized collection of generally-accepted data sets should be established, so that a methodological "shoot-out" could be performed on these data sets. There is still confusion about the facts themselves (actual air concentrations, death rates etc.).
11. A full risk assessment analysis should be performed for each identifiable major

component of PM10, and risks should be compared with those from non-PM10 hazards.

12. Existing epidemiological studies should be re-examined and integrated in a meta-analysis that takes into account differences in methodology, as well as differences in exposure to air pollutants.

13. Studies are needed that explore possible synergy among air pollutants.

14. The temporal associations, including time-lags between exposure and effects (1 day, 2 day, etc.) and short-term vs. long-term effects, should be investigated more thoroughly.

15. Lung function studies should be included in epidemiological investigations in order to clearly separate effects on large airways from those on small airways.

16. The nature of dose-response relationships for mortality and morbidity should be examined more thoroughly.

17. New, affordable, continuous, direct-reading air monitors should be developed and made available for epidemiological studies.

18. Reports of increased non-lung cancer rates in women exposed to high levels of air-pollutants should be followed up.

## EPIDEMIOLOGIC METHODS (SESSION II)

Varied epidemiologic methods have been used by various investigators to generate their findings. Many suggestions related to the research tools were offered.

1. The exposure aspects of the exposure-response models require special attention. Improved models are needed so that personal exposures, including consideration of activity patterns and exposure locations, can be studied. Models should be refined to allow better evaluation of temporal variations in exposure, as well as variations in chemical species and physical forms of the pollutants. Just using particle mass estimates from a few scattered sampling sites is too crude for health-related studies.
2. An environmentally-realistic synthetic data base should be defined and used to examine the sensitivities, differences, and uncertainties inherent in the various modeling approaches.
3. A modeling "shoot-out" (as recommended in relation to Session I) is needed to better understand subtle differences in the currently-used methods.
4. Uncertainty analysis methodology should undergo improvement, especially in relation to estimation of exposure.
5. Models should include methods for estimating the reductions in life expectancy due to exposure to PM<sub>10</sub> components, as opposed to just mortality, so that the societal costs of elevated death rates could be better estimated.

6. The available monitoring data bases and methodology should be improved to include at least daily monitoring of particulate material in cities, better measures of common personal exposures, and improved characterizations of hospital-related exposures.
7. Improvements in statistical software are needed, especially regarding those packages that would help epidemiologists who are not thoroughly trained in statistical methodology.
8. The problem of autocorrelation in time-series data requires additional study.

### **MECHANISMS OF TOXICITY (SESSION III)**

Three general types of studies, human clinical, laboratory animal, and in-vitro toxicological, comprise the bulk of investigations relating to inhalation toxicology. The in-vitro toxicological studies are often subdivided into categories relating to isolated organs, tissue cultures, cell cultures, and biochemical processes. Because of the unique exposure route characteristics of particle inhalation, contaminant metabolism, and of lung diseases, most inhalation toxicology studies have been conducted with whole animals. However, research suggestions covered each of the above types of studies.

1. In addition to greater use of existing animal models that are available, new animal models must be developed for the compromised human. These include models for the following: various types of active pulmonary infections; chronic asthma; COPD; emphysema; cancer (a transgenic animal model is needed); cardiovascular diseases; and fibrotic diseases.

2. Ultrafine singlet and aggregated particles, especially those smaller than  $0.1\ \mu\text{m}$  in diameter, must be studied with respect to their fates when inhaled, their inflammatory potentials, and their direct toxicity to various cells present in the lung. These studies should include several physical forms and chemical compositions of particles, including metal and metal-coated otherwise inert particles. (Note: Many investigators question the existence of a truly inert particle with respect to potential toxicity when inhaled.)
3. Toxicologic studies should be conducted to focus on some additional objectives, including: identification of thresholds for effects; dose-response relationships; more realistic dust sizes (especially sub-micrometer in diameter), lower dust concentrations; and chronic exposures.
4. More information is needed regarding the dosimetry of inhaled particles within the respiratory tract. Studies that shed light on where individual pollutants deposit may help identify how animal species, age and body size modulate toxicity. Comparative studies are also needed to aid in extrapolations from animals to humans. Dosimetry studies should include diseased animal models, and diseased humans.
5. Greater focus is needed on the issue of biological plausibility for particles causing human deaths. Such studies should explore cardiovascular, cardiopulmonary, neurological and immunological etiologies at the whole-animal, tissue, cellular and biochemical levels.
6. Toxicologic studies are needed that: lead to validated in-vitro models for cellular injury in various lung regions; identify cyto-toxic, geno-toxic and fibro-toxic mechanisms; and identify molecular mechanisms that could lead to acute mortality.
7. Greater focus on quantitative small airways pathology is needed, especially regarding



comparative phenomena in chronically-exposed humans vs commonly-used animal models.

8. Studies are needed that directly compare human and laboratory animal macrophage-related phenomena; both toxicologic and mechanistic studies are required.

9. Additional biomarkers of exposures and of effects are needed so that exposure-response relationships can be improved for individual components of PM<sub>10</sub>.

10. Additional information is needed on the dosimetry and effects of aqueous aerosol particles that carry dissolved gases and vapors into the respiratory tract.

11. Iron-coated (especially ionic Fe) particle generation systems should be developed, and used in inhalation studies. Similar considerations apply to fine particles of other transition metals.

#### **SOURCES, LEVELS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF PM<sub>10</sub> (SESSION IV)**

As this session proceeded at the Colloquium, it became apparent that it covered a large and complex area. The suggestions for research covered diverse topics and ranged from the very basic to the highly applied.

1. Basic studies are needed on the composition of, and reactions among, metastable species in the atmosphere. Such transient species, most of which may not yet be identified, escape "filter" analyses, and may, in fact, be the culprit(s) in human mortality and morbidity. Particulate mass (as we now understand it) may be only a surrogate problem.

2. Particulate mass must be speciated both with respect to composition, and for primary particles, emission sources. Such categories might include: combustion products from

various fuels; silicates; carbon; pollen; molds; agricultural; industrial; free radicals; atmospheric reaction products (especially with ozone); various organic fractions; etc. Measurements that are gravimetrically-based are too crude to allow for interpretation of health effects or for planning mitigation.

3. The organic fraction of PM<sub>10</sub> requires more study regarding its chemistry in aqueous media, exposure factors for human populations, indoor and outdoor compositions, size characteristics, transformations on filters, and losses in sampling devices.

4. More information is needed on size distributions of the various chemical species in PM<sub>10</sub>. This is especially true for those particles smaller than 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter, as they exist in ambient air in significant numbers.

5. Aqueous aerosol droplets require more study, especially related to their prevalence, reactions within them and their absorption of and liberation of pollutant gases and vapors.

6. More data are needed on variations, chemical, spatial and temporal, in outdoor and indoor aerosols. This need includes gathering more data from those cities already studied by epidemiologists.

7. Improvements are needed in several types of instruments, including: those sensitive to new species of pollutants; continuous reading instruments; those that separate particles from gases and vapors; and those that provide more and better information on size distributions.

8. The particle-size fractions and compositions in California should be better studied and better monitored so that epidemiological comparisons with eastern areas of the U.S. can be facilitated.

9. Episodes of air pollution should be more intensively characterized and studied at several diverse locations.
10. Methods for generating more realistic aerosols for laboratory studies are needed. This includes use of aerosol concentrators. The need applies to human exposures, laboratory animal studies and atmospheric chemistry investigations.
11. Gas-to-particle conversions should be more thoroughly studied and modeled.
12. More thorough weather studies are needed. Better weather data will improve understanding of the effects of weather-related variables on air pollution itself, as well as understanding of the effects of weather on health.
13. Sulfate, nitrate and acidity should be better characterized in those cities that have already been studied by epidemiologists.
14. Studies are needed to define the pollutant mixtures that will result from the widespread use of proposed "alternative" fuels.

### CONCLUDING REMARKS

This exercise in soliciting suggestions for research on PM<sub>10</sub> from a group of actively-engaged scientists is valuable to the extent that it actually improves the efficiency and payoff of future research efforts. Everyone who plans, conducts or supports research might benefit from contemplating, weighing and discussing these suggestions. In addition, the exercise allows us to make some immediate observations. Most striking is the realization that scientists perceived that we currently have only a meager and unsatisfactory knowledge of

the topic that stimulated the Colloquium – the relationship of particulate environmental air pollution to human mortality and morbidity. In many areas methodological limitations appear to be the major problem that blocks our progress. It is clear that a considerable amount of work still needs to be done. It is also apparent that particulate mass is perceived to be far too crude a measure for linking specific air pollutants to human health. However, one can't help but be optimistic at the clarity of the message contained in the suggestions regarding the next logical steps. Also, a remarkable similarity in research needs across specialties is seen. Perhaps in a few years, or decades, several completion checks could be entered beside items in the lists presented above. This will be the case only if the will and the means exist to mount a substantial, concerted, and sustained research effort.

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